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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. LXV, No. 3 MARCH 1952

The Position of Labour under the Schuman Plan

by

René ROUX

International Labour Office

Although it is nearly a year since it was signed, general interest still attaches to the Treaty establishing a European Coal and Steel Community as an entity distinct from other existing international organisations. To a still greater extent the economic and social clauses of the Treaty are of concern to the workers, which explains why they have shown so much interest in it. What will be the effect of the implementation of the Treaty on their living and working conditions, and what effect will the establishment of a common market have on prices and production, wages and employment? This article, which deals with these questions, is an analysis of the main provisions of the Treaty and of their value to labour.

WHEN Mr. Robert Schuman, French Minister for Foreign Affairs, proposed the pooling of European coal and steel production in a statement which he made in Paris on 9 May 1950 and which aroused world-wide interest, he expressed his conviction that such a community would not only help to ensure peace between the Western European countries but would also make it possible to provide better living conditions for the peoples of those countries. The governments of Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, which shortly afterwards lent their support to the French proposal, stated that they too were "resolved

to pursue common action for peace, European solidarity and economic and social progress ".[1] This basic desire for a welfare economy is clearly reflected in the Treaty constituting the European Coal and Steel Community, which states that the mission of that body is " to contribute to economic expansion, the development of employment and the improvement of the standard of living in the participating countries. . . . "[2]

The experts who drafted the Treaty and the plenipotentiaries who signed it were unanimous in emphasising the benefits that it would bring to labour. Mr. Jean Monnet, the principal architect of the Treaty, expressed his satisfaction at its successful conclusion in the following terms: " We have just created the essential conditions for an improvement in the general standard of living by removing the economic barriers which separate different countries. If we want to raise the standard of living of the people of Europe a large and unrestricted market is absolutely essential. The removal of the barriers formed by national frontiers will make it possible to employ methods of mass production, specialisation, etc., which will increase the productivity of each industry and, consequently, real wages."[3] In similar terms the German Chancellor, Dr. Adenauer, expressed his confident belief that the great common market for coal and steel, freed from all obstacles imposed by governments and all private monopoly restrictions, would improve the international division of labour, enlarge the credit capacity of the Western European economy, increase opportunities for export and in the long run reduce production and distribution costs. " I believe that every European, particularly the European worker, will reap considerable benefit from this development, for there is no doubt that he will soon be able to obtain more goods than hitherto and at lower prices, and this will raise his standard of living."[4]

The idea of a European coal and steel community could not fail to receive a considerable measure of support from the trade unions in view of the interest it was stated to have for the workers.

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[1] Joint communiqué issued on 3 June 1950.
[2] Article 2 of the Treaty.
[3] Statement made to *Le Monde* on 20 April 1951.
[4] Speech made to the Foreign Press Association in Paris on 13 April 1951.

However, the left-wing organisations rejected it out of hand. In France the executive of the General Confederation of Labour (C.G.T.) stated that the proposal would lead to " a more marked increase in unemployment and a deterioration of the conditions of the workers ".[1] At a meeting of representatives of the C.G.T. and of the Federation of Free German Unions (F.D.G.B.) held shortly afterwards in Berlin, a joint manifesto was issued which, among other things, contained a categorical denunciation of the Schuman Plan. This statement was followed by a similar declaration by the Miners' Trade Unions International and the Trade Unions International of Metal and Engineering Industries. The two texts were published in the review of the W.F.T.U., preceded by an article stating that " the Schuman Plan aims at accentuating the exploitation of the working class; . . . means a considerable increase in unemployment in the participant countries; . . . means the lining-up of wages on the lowest rates ".[2]

On the other hand, the other workers' organisations welcomed the proposal for a European Coal and Steel Community from the very beginning. As soon as the general outlines of the proposal were known the French Confederation of Christian Workers (C.F.T.C.) expressed its agreement with the spirit behind them. The executive of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions (I.F.C.T.U.) also expressed approval of the principle and of the general provisions of the Schuman Plan, subject to later confirmation by its Council of the resolutions in favour of the creation of a European coal and steel organisation adopted earlier by the executive and by a conference of international occupational federations held in Brussels.[3] The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (I.C.F.T.U.) also approved the basic principles of the Schuman Plan in a motion which was adopted *nem. con.*, the Swedish and United Kingdom delegations abstaining.[4]

When giving its approval the I.C.F.T.U. emphasised that it expressly reserved " the right to comment on the methods by which these principles are put into effect "; the affiliated

[1] *Le Monde*, 25 May 1950.

[2] *World Trade Union Movement* (Paris), June 1950.

[3] Secretary's report to the 26th National Congress of the C.F.T.C., Paris, 12, 13 and 14 May 1951.

[4] I.C.F.T.U. Executive Committee, Brussels, 9-11 November 1950.

unions, in particular the Belgian General Federation of Labour, and also the I.F.C.T.U. and the federations affiliated to it, had made similar reservations with regard to the original proposal. Members of these organisations were invited to take part in the Conference, and made proposals which were in the main accepted. The final text of the Treaty gives the labour organisations representation in the institutions of the Community, thus enabling them to express their views whenever the implementation of the provisions of the Treaty affects the workers. This in fact covers nearly all the economic and social provisions, since the organisation of a common market affects all the workers in the participating countries as consumers by its effect on production and prices, while measures relating to wages and employment directly affect the workers in the industries of the Community as producers.

Labour and the Organisation of the Coal and Steel Community

A number of trade unionists took part in the drafting of the Treaty, which gives organised labour certain functions in the institutions created.

Trade Union Participation in the Drafting of the Treaty

The delegations sent by the six countries represented at the Conference all included representatives or experts from the national workers' organisations. The delegates were divided into five working parties, and the workers became members of the working party on wages and social questions, while some also became members of the working party on production, prices and investment.[1] Thus they were directly

[1]

Germany	Hoff and Wagenführ	Wages and social questions.
Belgium	Thomassen and de Gerlache	„ „
France	Bothereau, Bouladoux and Malterre	Production, prices and investment; Wages and social questions.
Italy	Volonte	Wages and social questions.
Luxembourg	Rock and Fohrmann	„ „
Netherlands	Oosterhuis	Wages and social questions; Production, prices and investment.
	Dohmen	Production, prices and investment.

associated in the detailed drafting of the articles concerning these essential questions, which were later examined in plenary session together with the questions studied by the other groups, such as the question of the institutions to be established within the Community.

After a preliminary exchange of views the delegates examined the working paper prepared by the French experts. This draft Treaty contained 40 articles, and provided for the constitution of a joint High Authority consisting of members appointed for their general competence by agreement between the governments. The High Authority was to administer the coal and steel production of the Community, and its decisions were to be binding on the participating countries. It was to set up three separate consultative committees of employers, workers and consumers, which it would convene when it thought fit. Regional assemblies of producers would act as intermediaries for the transmission of information and instructions.

A Common Assembly, meeting once a year, was to supervise the general activities of the High Authority. A country or an undertaking could appeal against the decisions of the High Authority to a special arbitration court (the Court of Justice), which was to consist of five members, one of them being appointed by the International Labour Organisation.

The unions concerned put forward a number of criticisms of these provisions. The international federations of miners and metalworkers affiliated with the I.F.C.T.U. demanded "effective representation of the workers in the various bodies and institutions of the Schuman Plan", together with power for the consultative bodies to initiate discussion.[1]

The attitude of the I.C.F.T.U. was also based on the principle of effective and general participation of the workers. While accepting the appointment of the members of the High Authority by the governments alone, it demanded full rights to propose candidates for nomination by governments. It rejected the idea of having three separate consultative committees, on the ground that the workers would have no influence on the decisions of the other two committees although these decisions would often affect the workers. It did not

[1] *Labor* (Utrecht), November 1950, p. 123.

hide its " mistrust " of the provision concerning associations of producers, and would only support the Schuman Plan if the workers were represented on those bodies. It also considered that the delegates to the Common Assembly should not be chosen exclusively from members of parliaments, and demanded the right to send an observer to every session. In view of the fact that the decisions of the Court of Justice would often have social repercussions, the I.C.F.T.U. also insisted that at least one of the members of the Court should be nominated by the I.L.O.

In the main, the proposals made by the trade unionists at the Conference were favourably received [1], and their efforts helped to secure for the workers a larger share of influence in the Community.

Representation of Worker's Organisations in the Institutions of the Community

The institutions of the Coal and Steel Community are as follows : the High Authority, assisted by a Consultative Council ; the Common Assembly ; the Special Council (of Ministers) ; and the Court of Justice. They were designed, following the constitutional principle of separation of powers, to bring about a merging of sovereign rights in a limited field ; this made it necessary to co-ordinate the bodies of a federal character (the High Authority and the Court of Justice) with the member States by means of bodies of a national character (the Common Assembly and the Council). The Treaty thus establishes " a single authority which is substituted for that of the States and which inherits certain powers that are withdrawn from them ".[2]

The High Authority.

" The High Authority is responsible for ensuring that the objects of the present Treaty are carried out in accordance

[1] More favourably in some delegations than in others. " Experience showed that it was difficult to co-operate with the French representatives in charge of negotiations. The workers' and employers' representatives of other countries had freer access to the heads of their delegations than the French employers and workers." (Secretary's report to the 1951 Congress of the French Confederation of Christian Workers.)

[2] Paul REUTER : " La conception du pouvoir politique dans le Plan Schuman ", in *Revue Française de Sciences Politiques* (Paris), September 1951.

with its terms." [1] Being endowed with such general powers, this body of nine members appointed for six years has real authority. Its decisions (whether on particular matters, of general application or in the nature of regulations) are binding on the governments or undertakings, both as regards the aims laid down in the decision and the means prescribed for achieving these aims. The High Authority's recommendations, on the other hand, are binding with respect to the objectives which they determine, but leave to those to whom they are directed the choice of appropriate means. This sovereign power makes the High Authority a genuine executive power and the most important body of the Community.

Being charged with such important functions, the members of the High Authority must act with full independence and in the general interest of the Community. Their essentially non-representative character is emphasised by the procedure for their appointment. They are chosen for their general competence, and with the exception of the ninth member, who is co-opted, they are appointed by the governments of the member States in agreement. It was, however, agreed during the discussion that one of the members should be a person enjoying the confidence of the trade unions. The agreement reached on this point between the I.F.C.T.U. and the I.C.F.T.U. provides that this person shall be chosen from a list prepared by the I.C.F.T.U., approved by the I.F.C.T.U., and submitted by the two organisations to all the member States.

The workers are also represented on the consultative and administrative bodies assisting the High Authority.

The Consultative Committee.

The Treaty provides for a single Consultative Committee of between 30 and 51 members, in which the three groups of producers, workers, and consumers and dealers are represented in equal numbers. Its members are appointed by the Special Council for a period of two years. As regards the workers in particular, the Council designates the representative organisations, allocates the seats among them and fills the seats by nominations from lists that are drawn up by each organisation and comprise twice as many names as there are seats. Here again, agreement was reached between the I.C.F.T.U.

[1] Article 8 of the Treaty.

and the I.F.C.T.U., which will receive respectively 11 and 4 of the total of 45 seats.[1]

The High Authority may consult the Committee on all cases and at any time. It is obliged to do so before taking certain general decisions under the economic and social provisions of the Treaty, such as those concerning production quotas and labour re-employment measures.[2] The opinions of the Committee are not binding on the High Authority, but may in fact induce it to modify its attitude or suggest the attitude it should take. The High Authority submits its general objectives and programmes to the Committee and keeps it informed of the broad lines of its action as regards investment, financial assistance, and agreements, mergers and other forms of combination. Thus the Consultative Committee advises and receives information from the High Authority on essential questions.[3] It usually meets at the request of the High Authority, but may also meet at the request of the majority of its members. In the latter case the Committee appears to acquire a right of initiative, as the minutes of the meetings are to be transmitted to the High Authority and to the Council at the same time as the opinions of the Committee.[4]

In addition, the producers' associations are entitled to submit their observations to the High Authority whenever the Committee is consulted.[5]

Associations of Producers.

The workers in the producers' associations can give the High Authority not only advice but constant assistance.

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[1] "But the International Federation of Managerial and Supervisory Staffs has requested that this figure should be increased to 51 in order to enable managerial and supervisory staffs to be adequately represented in the Consultative Committee". (*Journal officiel de la République française*, Débats parlementaires, Assemblée Nationale, 7 December 1951).

[2] Articles 19, 56 and 58 of the Treaty.

[3] "It is, however, desirable that the powers of the Committee should be defined more clearly, and in particular that it should be made compulsory to consult the Committee on all general decisions affecting the economies of the different countries, such as questions concerning investments, wages, industrial concentrations, etc." Report on the European Coal and Steel Community submitted by M. André Philip on behalf of the Economic Council. *Journal Officiel de la République Française*, Conseil Economique, 30 November 1951.

[4] Article 19 of the Treaty.

[5] Article 48.

" The High Authority will normally call upon producers' associations to obtain information which it requires or to facilitate the fulfilment of its tasks, provided that the associations in question either permit the qualified representatives of the workers and consumers to participate in the leadership of these associations or any consultative committee affiliated to them, or in any other way give a satisfactory place in their organisation to the expression of the workers' and consumers' interests ".[1] These associations have thus two fundamental roles : on the one hand, the carrying out of decisions and, on the other hand, the collecting of information and carrying out of studies (in particular, regarding the establishment of quotas, allocations and fixed prices).[2]

In addition, " the High Authority may at any time consult the Governments, the various interested parties (enterprises, workers, consumers and dealers) and their associations as well as any experts. Enterprises, workers, consumers and dealers and their associations may present any suggestions or observations to the High Authority on questions which concern them ".[3] The associations thus have the right and the duty to give advice, which the High Authority must respect in every field of its activity.

Certain trade union leaders[4], while expressing satisfaction with these arrangements for workers' participation, expressed the desire that it should be extended to the other institutions of the Community.

Other Institutions.

The workers are given no representation in the other institutions of the Community ; but these institutions are practically powerless compared with the High Authority.

The method first proposed for appointing members of the Assembly (by parliaments, from among their members) has been retained in the present text of the Treaty. Each country may, however, elect its members by direct universal suffrage instead. Members of trade unions may therefore be delegates to the Assembly whether they are members of parliament or

[1] Article 48 of the Treaty.
[2] Article 58, para. 2 ; Article 59, para. 4 ; and Article 61.
[3] Article 46.
[4] For example, see Léon JOUHAUX : " The Schuman Plan and the Unification of Europe ", in *Free Labor World*, October 1950.

not. Of course, they are only eligible for election to the Special Council if they hold a portfolio in the government of a member State.

The seven members of the Court of Justice are chosen "from among persons of recognised independence and competence".[1] It appears therefore that only eminent specialists may be appointed, but the Treaty does not specify the method of appointing them.[2]

The Special Council was created in order to co-ordinate the action of the High Authority and that of the member governments which it represents. It does this by consultations and exchanges of information with the High Authority, mainly during joint meetings. It has, however, no part in the exercise of the powers of the High Authority; at most it can invite the latter to examine proposals and measures which it may deem necessary or appropriate. It need be consulted only regarding decisions affecting the common market or the general economy of the member States; and its advice need be followed only if the decision to be taken entails an appraisal of the situation by the High Authority, for example, in the case of the creation of the necessary financial machinery or the establishment of quotas in the event of a depression. Admittedly, in the event of a shortage, the Council decides on consumption priorities and the allocation of coal and steel resources; but such decisions must be unanimous, and unanimity is unlikely to be achieved on such questions. If the Council fails to reach a decision, the High Authority allocates the resources itself.[3]

The Assembly, which consists of representatives of the peoples of the countries belonging to the Community, exercises general supervision over the High Authority, but has no power. The position is that the High Authority reports to the Assembly

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[1] Article 32 of the Treaty.

[2] "Two solutions have been envisaged. The first would be to choose three judges from a list submitted by the President of the International Court of Justice in The Hague, containing the names of six persons competent in administrative, judicial, economic and social questions. The second solution would be to increase the number of members of the Court to eleven, five of them to be appointed either by the procedure mentioned above, or some on the proposal of the International Court of Justice in The Hague, some on the proposal of the International Labour Office, and the rest on the proposal of the G.A.T.T.".—Report by Mr. André Philip, *loc. cit.*

[3] Article 59 of the Treaty.

on its activities but is not answerable to it. The role of the Assembly is limited to a single annual meeting, during which it discusses the general report prepared by the High Authority and may obtain explanations in answer to questions. It has neither budgetary prerogatives nor any right to initiate action or make proposals. Its sole power is that of being able to overthrow the High Authority, but to do this requires conditions so exceptional that they seem unlikely to occur. The members of the High Authority must resign in a body on the adoption of a motion of censure, but such a motion must be adopted by a two-thirds majority of the votes cast and by a simple majority of the 78 members of the Assembly. The fact that members have no individual responsibility and the difficulty of obtaining the double majority required deprive the Assembly of all real power.

Moreover, the High Authority may ask the Court to annul the votes of the Council or Assembly. " The function of the Court is to ensure the rule of law in the interpretation and application of the present Treaty and its implementing regulations ".[1] This " guardian of the objectivity of the High Authority " [2], which is modelled on the French Council of State, normally has jurisdiction over appeals against decisions and recommendations of the High Authority; but it may not review " the conclusions of the High Authority, drawn from economic facts and circumstances, which formed the basis of such decisions or recommendations, except where the High Authority is alleged to have abused its powers or to have clearly misinterpreted the provisions of the Treaty or of a rule of law relating to its application ".[3] This jurisdictional control makes the Court the judge of illegality but not of expediency. Thus its rulings can only determine points of law and not matters of fact, which only come within its competence in two exceptional cases: where " fundamental and persistent disturbances " threaten the economy of a country, and where the rules governing the exercise by the High Authority of its powers require amendment. Even so,

[1] Article 31 of the Treaty.

[2] Jean Monnet, quoted by Walter HALLSTEIN: " Métamorphose et évolution du Plan Schuman ", in *Documents* (Offenburg, Baden), No. 6, June 1951.

[3] Article 33 of the Treaty.

such amendments must not modify the fundamental principles of the Community or "the relationship between the powers of the High Authority and those of the other institutions of the Community".[1]

Thus the real power is firmly in the hands of the High Authority. If the workers' organisations are allowed due participation in the exercise of this power, it may be agreed that "this rapid examination of the institutions of the Coal and Steel Community shows us that the Community is a daring venture, but a balanced and realistic one".[2]

The Coal and Steel Community and Living Conditions

The Coal and Steel Community must see that the market is regularly supplied at the lowest possible price and under conditions guaranteeing equality of access to users while encouraging undertakings to develop their resources and expand their production.[3] The raising of the standard of living which the achievement of these aims will make possible will be due to the organisation of a common competitive market and the administration of production.

Organisation of a Common Competitive Market

The Community is to organise a common competitive market for enterprises producing coal and steel in the territories of the member States.[4]

Normal Competition.

The provisions of the Treaty aim at the establishment and maintenance of normal competition by abolishing monopolistic organisations and prohibiting unfair competition. The creators of the Community, being convinced of the superiority of competition, have prohibited all agreements and have made concentrations in the Community's industries subject to prior authorisation.

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[1] Article 95 of the Treaty.

[2] Jacques Michollin in *Force ouvrière*, 1 February 1951.

[3] Article 3 of the Treaty.

[4] The field of action of the Community, as defined by Articles 79-81 and the relevant annexes of the Treaty, includes distribution enterprises as regards the measures concerning agreements and concentrations.

The price of goods or services in a given market at any particular moment normally lies at the point of intersection of the supply and demand curves. Demand reflects the requirements which can be paid for and normally varies inversely to prices. Supply depends on the possibilities of producing at a profit. All production involves overheads which remain constant whatever the quantity produced by the undertaking, and costs which vary with the quantities produced. The cost of production of an article, or the average unit cost, is found by dividing the total cost by the number of units produced. This average unit cost represents the lowest long-term price which an entrepreneur can accept and is related to the greatest quantity he can sell. In a perfectly competitive market where the selling price of a given article is by definition the same everywhere, the price coincides with the average cost in the marginal undertaking, that is to say, the least profitable undertaking for whose goods there is a demand on the market.

On the other hand, the single seller or the monopolist is in complete control of the supply, but he has no more control over demand than the producer in a competitive market, and if he wishes to sell at a given price, he must fix production at the level corresponding to that price; similarly, if he wishes to sell a given quantity of goods, he can only do so at the price which will give him the necessary market. Under these conditions, economic theory shows that, to obtain the greatest profit, (1) the monopolist must choose the price (and consequently the quantity sold) which will equalise his marginal cost and marginal receipts; (2) he generally does this by fixing production at a level below what it would be under the same conditions in a competitive market.[1] If economic conditions are unfavourable the reduction may be even greater; in order to maintain price levels threatened by a fall in demand, the monopolist may reduce his production and thus maintain the balance between supply and demand at the same level—to the detriment of the consumer.

Of course, the foregoing picture is very schematic and is only true in the conditions which are assumed. Absolute

[1] The proof of this is simple but involves theoretical arguments which would be out of place in this article. Readers who are interested may consult Joan ROBINSON: *The Economics of Imperfect Competition* (London, 1936) or Jean MARCHAL: *Le mécanisme des prix* (Paris, 1948).

monopoly and perfect competition hardly ever occur in reality; there are intermediate situations of monopolistic competition. For instance, a public monopoly gives greater consideration to production than to profit; and a private monopolist must take some account of public interest, particularly when he is forced to do so by the government. As for imperfect competition, it gives neither the lowest possible price nor the maximum possible production; the balance it strikes involves losses in production and a corresponding restriction in consumption. Competitive conditions, however superior, are therefore only an ideal which, even so, may be destroyed by the abuses to which they may give rise. In the United States, the struggle between the mining companies, although beneficial to production in some respects, led to such a wastage of coal seams that a federal Act was passed in 1937 dividing bituminous coal concessions into districts, in each of which a standing committee was set up to regulate prices. If such excesses were to occur in the Community, the High Authority would be responsible for restoring normal competition.

It is for this reason that the Treaty prohibits " all agreements among enterprises, all decisions of associations or enterprises and all concerted practices which would tend, directly or indirectly, to prevent, restrict or impede the normal operation of competition within the common market, and in particular *(a)* to fix or influence prices; *(b)* to restrict or control production, technical development or investments; *(c)* to allocate markets, products, customs or sources of supply ".[1] The High Authority is empowered to make suitable recommendations to enterprises which have acquired " a dominant position which protects them from effective competition in a substantial part of the common market ".[2] Mergers and other combinations are subject to previous authorisation.

Abuses of competition may lead to monopolies: " competition in the market gives birth to competition for the market ".[3] Thus, a monopolistic position is often acquired by making temporary price reductions in order to oust competitors.

[1] Article 65, para. 1 of the Treaty.

[2] Article 66, para. 7.

[3] J. HIRSCH: *National and International Monopolies from the Point of View of Labour, the Consuming Public and Rationalisation.* Paper submitted to the International Economic Conference. League of Nations-I.L.O. Document C.E.C.P. No. 99 (Geneva, I.L.O., 1927).

Such unfair practices and also " discriminatory practices involving the application by a seller within the single market of unequal conditions to comparable transactions especially according to the nationality of the buyer " are prohibited.[1]

Perfect competition assumes that buyers and sellers are in a position to choose freely the persons with whom they wish to deal and the price and quantity demanded or offered; in other words, it is assumed that supply and demand are both " fluid " and quickly react to market conditions. On the other hand, in all cases of imperfect competition, where demand is more of less inelastic, the seller may, instead of charging a uniform price, charge different prices for the different sections of the market and classes of buyers. Such discrimination enables him to increase his total income by adapting his prices to his estimate of the buyer's need and by exploiting the buyer who cannot do without the product in question so easily.

Discrimination may be applied to transport costs. To avoid this, the Treaty lays down the principle of equivalency of rates (which must be such as will " make possible comparable price conditions to consumers in comparable positions " [2]) and provides for " the establishment of direct international rates which take into account total distance and are degressive in nature ".[3]

In addition to the foregoing there are measures to counteract any action by a member State which might have harmful effects on the conditions of competition, such as variations in wage rates and working conditions.[4]

Lastly, economic frontiers hinder competition; therefore the competitive market must be a common market.

The Common Market.

By abolishing " import and export duties, or charges with an equivalent effect, and quantitive restrictions on the movement of coal and steel "[5], the Treaty creates a common internal market which should enjoy the advantages generally expected from customs unions, particularly with regard to prices.

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[1] Article 60, para. 1 of the Treaty.
[2] Article 70.
[3] Section 10 of Convention containing the transitional provisions.
[4] Article 67, para. 2 of the Treaty.
[5] Article 4 *(a)* of the Treaty and Section 9 of Convention containing the transitional provisions.

Production costs may fall as a result of either a decrease in the cost of its component elements or an increase in production. Is the creation of a common market likely to cause one or the other ?

The cost of producing coal consists mainly of expenditure on labour, while the cost of steel depends mainly on the price of the raw material. The common market in itself can only affect production costs by reducing the selling price of the ore ; but in practice it is doubtful whether it could do this to any great extent. Nor does the creation of a common market seem likely in itself to bring about an increase in over-all production [1] ; but it may contribute to such an increase by its effect on prices, and in particular it may lead to more specialised and therefore less costly production in each undertaking by enabling distribution to be better organised. The market of the Coal and Steel Community has frequently been compared to that in the United States, and certain propagandists have more or less implied that it might experience the same demand. This is more than a factual error [2] ; it involves a confusion between population and purchasing power which gives an often denounced [3], but nevertheless frequent, misinterpretation of the law of the size of the market. A market of 160 million Europeans has neither the same requirements nor the same resources as the United States market ; moreover, there is a distinction to be made between the size of the market and the size of the undertaking. It is through the specialisation which it makes possible in each undertaking that a large common market is most likely to result in reduced production costs and consequently a lower selling price.[4]

In short, the creation of a market may bring about a reduction in production costs through more highly developed

[1] But see Rolf WAGENFÜHR : " Wirtschaftsprobleme des Schumanplanes ", in *Gewerkschaftliche Monatshefte*, June 1951.

[2] As a result of the sharing out of the United States coal market, as already described.

[3] Particularly by Wilhelm RÖPKE : *Explication économique du monde moderne* (Paris, 1951).

[4] The normal capacity of a strip rolling mill is one million tons a year. In an extremely restricted market it can only operate full time by supplying several products instead of a single product according to fixed specifications which would be the cheapest to produce. This example was quoted in " Réponses à 30 questions sur le Plan Schuman ", in *Problèmes économiques*, 5 June 1951.

inter-regional division of labour, the advantages of which are emphasised in the classical theory of relative costs.

In a perfectly competitive market every fall in production costs is followed by a proportional fall in the selling price, leading to an increase in consumption which develops production. Coal and steel are essential basic materials and the demand for them is relatively insensitive to price movements, but the wide extent of the demand may partly offset its inelasticity.[1] In the Coal and Steel Community, the action of the High Authority with regard to agreements and combinations permeates through the whole distributive apparatus, with the exception of retailers, and any reduction in production costs will to a great extent be felt in the selling price.

The single price for all users in comparable conditions will thus be determined by the cost of production in the least profitable undertaking whose production is still necessary if their needs are to be met. To ensure that these requirements can be met in the event of increased demand, the Community is engaged in forming a reserve of productive capacity. One of the most important consequences of this is that the price may vary with the economic situation but within fairly narrow limits, as any increase in demand will be met by bringing into operation undertakings which are ultramarginal in normal times and which have been kept in reserve for this purpose. The High Authority has also power to hold up prices or to limit increases, according to the economic situation.[2] The resultant price in the common market will therefore not be always or everywhere the same. Although all artificial protection of a private or public nature is abolished, the natural protection of distance, which takes the concrete form of transport costs, remains unaffected. The distance and the nature, ease and cost of communications between producers and consumers affect the purchaser's practical choice of seller.

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[1] A factual study carried out also reaches the conclusion that "the benefits of a unified market for Western European coal and steel industries would be found chiefly in a freer and more active trade in the basic materials: coal, coke and iron ore. The expansion of production of these goods in low-cost areas should serve to lower coal and steel costs generally and to release resources of manpower and capital which, in a progressive economy, could be more effectively employed elsewhere". — "The Coal and Steel Industries of Western Europe", in *Economic Bulletin for Europe*, Second Quarter, 1950.

[2] Article 61 of the Treaty.

The reduction and standardisation of distribution costs will enable only those undertakings whose prices at the factory are lower than those of other undertakings to extend their markets, and that only in so far as transport costs do not exceed the differences in price.

In addition, " when transport costs are also taken into consideration, the specialisation of production and the division of labour between the different regions tend to diminish " [1]; an obstacle is thus created to the increase of productivity which the management of production is intended to bring about.

The Management of Production

The Coal and Steel Community is not a market of free competition. The central authority is to intervene both to protect normal competition against possible abuses and to correct defects in the competitive system so as to adjust it to the economic situation and to develop productivity.

Adjustment to the Economic Situation.

The creation of a common competitive market should normally reduce the risks of a depression, particularly as every effort is made to adapt the industries to the economic situation.

Many economists consider that price rigidity is one of the fundamental causes of depressions and that the adjustment of prices to demand is the only method of ensuring recovery. The most recent theories lay more stress on the insufficiency of total demand, but nevertheless still regard price rigidity as one of the possible causes of this insufficiency. Monopolistic systems, which usually meet a fall in demand by a corresponding restriction of production, tend to reinforce price rigidity, unlike competitive systems, in which an adjustment of prices normally restores the balance. It may, therefore, be argued that the creation of a competitive market, while not protecting the industries of the Community from a possible depression, will enable them to recover from it more rapidly. Many

[1] G. HABERLER : *Prosperity and Depression* (Geneva, League of Nations, 1943).

economists, however, disagree with this liberal thesis and consider that price rigidity has a stabilising influence rather than the contrary, whereas excessive elasticity of prices may result in general and permanent instability. However, it may be true that "relatively slight variations in price and wage levels are sufficient to maintain almost full employment, particularly if a certain time lag is involved in making the necessary adjustments in employment and production".[1]

On the other hand, is not a common market more exposed to cyclical variations than a series of separate markets? Does not the abolition of barriers make it easier for a depression to spread by offering it a wide, clear field in which it can develop more rapidly and more disastrously? Although economic theory is far from having elucidated the relationship between the size of the market and the magnitude of the cycle, experience has clearly shown that a depression is more serious when it affects a large market. The study of the recent economic fluctuations in the United States leaves no doubt on this point.[2] But if a large market is more exposed to depressions it is also capable of greater prosperity, and this advantage is decisive if the great common market can be protected against depressions.

In fact, the question is not so much whether a common market has a higher or lower degree of stability but whether it has greater or less possibilities of stabilisation. Even in a large market there are inevitably certain obstacles to the spread of fluctuations. Artificial barriers may have been abolished, but there still remains the natural barrier of transport costs, one effect of which is to hamper the spread of prosperity or depression from one region to another.[3] The reactions that occur in practice are naturally more complex, and it may readily be understood that the cost differential due to distance cannot check economic movements entirely but only slow them down and that, inversely, standardisation of transport costs has little effect on the speed of such movements.[4] The facilities for capital movements and exchange which may follow in the wake of the creation of a common

[1] G. HABERLER, *op. cit.*

[2] Cf. KLEIN: *Economic Fluctuations in the U.S.A.* (New York, 1950).

[3] Cf. G. HABERLER, *op. cit.*

[4] Cf. Henri GUITTON: *Les fluctuations économiques* (Paris, 1951).

market would not increase the vulnerability of the market to depression. The customs barriers which formerly localised the fluctuations and which might have helped to limit depressions were not impassable, and while their abolition may facilitate the spread of a depression within the market, it makes defence against an external crisis easier. The most recent economic studies have shown that one economy can have a dominating influence on another, and it is recognised today that general economic movements spread outwards from the centres of prosperity or slump to the dominated economies. The stronger market resulting from the union of several markets has a higher natural resistance to the influence of the other economies. Passing from the field of theory to that of economic policy, it is equally certain that a large market, which is more self-supporting and consequently more able to withstand possible retaliatory measures, could if necessary protect itself more effectively at its frontiers. Protectionism of this kind would be forced upon it and would in no way contradict the principles of open economy and freedom of exchange proclaimed by the Coal and Steel Community.

Moreover, the Community will constantly ensure, by forecasting and positive action, that its market is adjusted to the prevailing economic situation.

The High Authority is to obtain the knowledge and understanding of the economic facts upon which its decisions to intervene will be based by "a permanent study of markets and price tendencies" and by "non-compulsory programme forecasts dealing with production, consumption, exports and imports" [1] drawn up periodically. This will enable it to foresee in order to take any necessary action under the powers transferred to it from the governments or groups. The High Authority can influence production even more than it can prices. In the event of a decline in demand it must, if it considers that a period of open depression has begun, establish a system of equitable production quotas.[2] On the other hand, in the event of a serious shortage of products, the Council will establish priorities for the use and allocation of resources, and the High Authority will fix the compulsory manufacturing

[1] Article 46 of the Treaty.

[2] Article 58.

programmes for the undertakings according to these priorities. If the Council fails to reach unanimous agreement, the High Authority will allocate resources among the member States. In either case the quantities allocated are to be divided equitably among the undertakings.[1]

The Raising of Productivity.

The creation of a common competitive market is in itself likely to stimulate the increase of productivity, by enabling the various undertakings in the market to specialise.[2] Moreover, in a competitive system the producer has every interest in increasing the output of his undertaking; in this way he can reduce his prices and sell more at the expense of his competitors. However, he has not always the necessary financial and technical resources. A monopoly or a dominating group of undertakings has not the same difficulty in finding the resources to increase output; it can either draw on its own financial resources and research facilities or obtain bank credit and the services of independent technicians. But it is not always in the interests of a monopoly or dominating group to introduce new methods and new and expensive equipment. The competitive market under a common High Authority enjoys the advantages of both situations. It is both advantageous and easy for the industries to increase productivity, as competition impels them and the High Authority helps them to do so.

The High Authority gives both technical and financial assistance. It encourages technical and economic research concerning the production and the development of coal and steel consumption by encouraging joint financing by the undertakings concerned, by earmarking for that purpose any grants it may receive, or by earmarking for that purpose funds derived from the annual levies on the various products.[3] There are two forms of financial assistance: loans made to

[1] Article 59 of the Treaty.

[2] "The specialisation of production, which is a necessary condition for the improvement of productivity, is likewise impossible if outlets are inadequate as a result of the markets being separated from one another." —Report by Mr. Coste Floret, Foreign Affairs Committee to the National Assembly on 6 December 1951 (*Journal officiel de la République française, loc. cit.*).

[3] Article 55.

undertakings out of the borrowings of the High Authority itself, and the guaranteeing by the High Authority of loans raised by the undertakings themselves. By such loans and guarantees the High Authority can facilitate the carrying out of investment programmes. It may " assist by the same means in financing works and installations which contribute directly and principally to increase production, lower production costs or facilitate marketing of products subject to its jurisdiction ".[1] In this way the High Authority may guide the increase of productivity to which it contributes, as its unfavourable opinion on the financing of a programme or the operation of the plant which that programme entails will " have the effect of prohibiting the enterprise concerned from resort to resources other than its own funds to put such programme into effect ".[2]

How can this increase of productivity be achieved ?[3] Little can be done to alter the natural conditions of production. The nature of the coal measures and the natural composition of the ore are factors which severely limit the choice of operating principles in the extractive and producing industries. Much more can be done with regard to technical factors, the methods employed and the equipment used. Among the human factors, good industrial relations and vocational training should be stressed. The trade unions often object to increases in productivity on the grounds that they may result in unemployment or a deterioration in working conditions. In this respect, the role which the workers' organisations have been given in the joint institutions of the Coal and Steel Community and the assistance which they give to the High Authority in its work (as well as the measures to combat technological unemployment, which are described below) may make it considerably easier for the workers to accept the methods adopted in the undertakings to increase output.

In accordance with the fundamental purpose of the Community, such methods are to bring about " the most rational distribution of production at the highest possible level of productivity, while safeguarding the continuity of employment

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[1] Article 54 of the Treaty.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] For a study of methods of increasing productivity in coal mining, see International Labour Organisation, Coal Mines Committee, Fourth Session, Geneva, 1952, Report III : *Productivity in Coal Mines* (Geneva, I.L.O., 1951).

and avoiding the creation of fundamental and persistent disturbances in the economies of the member States ".[1] But are these two simultaneous objectives compatible with each other ? A primary concern with productivity may result in workers being thrown out of employment and being replaced by machines. And, more generally speaking, is there not a danger that the improvement in living conditions thus achieved might be valueless because it is obtained at the risk—or even at the price—of an unacceptable deterioration in working conditions ?

The Coal and Steel Community and Working Conditions

Of all the provisions made for the benefit of the consumers there are hardly any of which it can be said without hesitation that they do not bear heavily on the producers, by creating serious difficulties for entrepreneurs and by leading to a marked deterioration in the condition of the workers. Will not the undertakings which cannot stand up to competition be eliminated from the market and their workers thrown out of employment ? In those which survive, will not the preoccupation with productivity lead to reductions in staff as a result of the introduction of modern equipment or to the adoption of new methods which are prejudicial to the health and safety of the workers ? And will not price competition be carried on at the expense of wages, particularly in coal mines, where labour is the principal element in the cost of production ?

Although these fears are not unfounded, the dangers on which they are based are neither certain nor inevitable, provided that in the new economy the Coal and Steel Community gives suitable protection to wages and employment.

The Workers and the New Economy

In a market in which competition, stability and productivity are guaranteed by joint institutions, labour should normally enjoy better conditions.

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[1] Article 2 of the Treaty.

Common Competitive Market.

The creation of the common market does not seem any more likely to lead to an increase in employment than to an increase in consumption. "It seems unlikely that the coal-steel combine will provide a solution to population problems or increase to any great extent the number of jobs or the possibility of increasing that number".[1]

A monopoly system may be just as unfavourable to labour as to production. The fall in production which results from an exclusive concern with maximum profits leads to a corresponding reduction in the factors utilised and therefore in employment, unless wage rates are lowered. Moreover, "... labour receives less than the value of its marginal net product if imperfect competition prevails in the market for the products of an industry whether perfect competition or imperfect competition ... exists in the labour market."[2] Thus a monopoly in the market of a product offers the choice between unemployment and exploitation—a situation which is aggravated by monopoly of the employment market which often accompanies a monopoly situation in the market for a product. The employment market is generally characterised by a degree of localisation and specialisation corresponding to that of production. The monopolist is thus the master; he is free to offer labour the minimum conditions which are compatible with his labour requirements and which may be lowered still further by discrimination.

This line of thought naturally needs correction when applied to actual conditions, in the same way as the theoretical considerations with respect to production. "An agreement between producers tending to keep prices at a profitable level (which incidentally need not be higher than the old) is favourable to the worker and to higher wages.... The employer is no longer under an inducement to keep reducing costs, in particular the least resistant factor—wages.... The widening of the margin of profits due to a better arrangement of production by means of international agreements encourages the

[1] A. SAUVY: "La population de l'Europe occidentale et le Plan Schuman", in *Population*, July-September 1951.

[2] International Labour Conference, Thirty-first Session, San Francisco, 1948, Report VI *(a)*: *Wages* (a) *General Report* (Geneva, I.L.O., 1948), p. 44.

making of concessions to the workers." [1] In practice, many other factors (of which the most important are the organisation of the workers and labour legislation) also help to reduce the differences between the conditions of workers under a monopoly system and those of workers under a competitive system. There is a danger that the transition from a monopoly to a competitive system, involving the liquidation of existing monopolistic agreements and organisations, may lead to partial or complete closing down of certain producing or consuming undertakings, with corresponding dismissals of workers. For this reason the High Authority will have to consider what steps must be taken during the transitional period " to avoid an inequitable distribution among the workers of such reductions in employment as might result from reduced demand ".[2]

Prevailing Economic Conditions.

The remarks made concerning the flexibility of prices under different economic systems also apply to the flexibility of wages. However, the argument that a reduction in wages is a certain means—if not the only means—of ensuring recovery is vigorously opposed by certain eminent economists and has been more or less abandoned by the Keynesian theories. Even if a reduction in wages could put an end to a depression, such a method would be impracticable because of the difficulties it would entail in the social sphere, since certain theorists consider that in slump conditions wages would have to be reduced to zero in order to lead immediately to full employment. [3]

The above analysis of the relative possibility of stabilising the different markets applies even more to employment, as the establishment of a greater variety of industries in regions where slumps are mainly due to the predominance of one or two main industries (as is the case in the productive regions of the Community) may give greater stability to employment.[4]

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[1] W. OUALID : *The Social Effects of International Industrial Agreements—The Protection of Workers and Consumers.* Paper submitted to the International Economic Conference. League of Nations-I.L.O. Document C.E.C.P. 94 (Geneva, I.L.O., 1926).

[2] Section 12 of Convention containing the transitional provisions.

[3] A. C. PIGOU : *Industrial Fluctuations* (London, 1924).

[4] INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 20 : *Action against Unemployment* (Geneva, 1950).

Productivity.

Trade unions often oppose measures to increase productivity, which they fear may be prejudicial to safety, remuneration and employment.

It is a fact that mechanisation has sometimes increased occupational risks. " The development since 1918 of mechanical cutting and transport equipment in coal mines has resulted in a definite increase in the unhealthiness of the conditions in which miners work." [1] However, productivity drives often result in improved working conditions, particularly by eliminating unnecessary effort and reducing occupational hazards. The Treaty provides that the High Authority shall encourage technical and economic research in relation to industrial safety.[2]

In an even greater number of cases productivity increases favour wage increases, particularly where systems of payment by results are introduced. As a general rule workers work better if it is in their interest to do so and the increase in their output enables the employer to increase wages. " The question of the wages paid by the [coal] industry is of vital importance to the attainment of full technical efficiency in the industry ".[3]

Similarly, a reduction in the number of persons employed and in their average age and the reassignment of workers is often followed by an increase in productivity, although it cannot be stated that the one is a direct result of the other. In the French coal mines the year of highest output underground (1949) was also the year in which the number of workers employed was lowest; the effort to increase the proportion of face workers and to reduce their average age was also followed by an increase in output. These changes may, in conjunction with mechanisation, be prejudicial to employment unless suitable measures are taken. Such measures are to be taken by the Community, which is required to " promote the improvement of the living and working condi-

[1] L. ADAM : " Quelques aspects du problème charbonnier en Belgique ", in the *Bulletin* of the Société Belge d'Etudes et d'Expansion, No. 141, May-July 1950, p. 361.

[2] Article 55 of the Treaty.

[3] MINISTRY OF FUEL AND POWER : *Coal Mining.* Report of the Technical Advisory Committee presented by the Ministry of Fuel and Power to Parliament, March 1945.

tions of the labour force. . . . so as to make possible the equalisation of such conditions in an upward direction ".[1]

Measures with Regard to Wages

The High Authority may intervene in the event of wages being abnormally low or of a fall in wages.

Abnormally Low Wages.

" If the High Authority notes that abnormally low prices practised by one or several enterprises are the result of wages fixed by these enterprises at an abnormally low level in comparison with the actual wage level in the same region, it shall make the necessary recommendations to the interested enterprises after consulting the Consultative Committee. If the abnormally low wages are the result of governmental decisions, the High Authority shall enter into consultation with the interested Government; in the absence of agreement and after consulting the Consultative Committee it may issue a recommendation to the Government concerned." [2]

Regardless of whether the intervention of the High Authority is required or is merely permitted by the Treaty (depending on whether wages are fixed by the parties or by the State), it can intervene only if an abnormally low level of wages, by comparison with those current in the same region, results in abnormally low prices: the High Authority has power to act only if the unfavourable position of the workers is detrimental to competition on the market for the product. This subordination of labour questions to considerations of production is also found in the provisions relating to wage reductions.

Wage Reductions.

" If the High Authority finds that a lowering of wages is leading to a drop in the standard of living of the labour force and at the same time is being used as a means of permanent economic adjustment by enterprises or as a weapon of competition among enterprises, it shall address to the enterprise or Government concerned, after consulting the Consultative Committee, a recommendation intended to assure the labour

[1] Article 3 *(e)* of the Treaty.

[2] Article 68, para. 2.

force a compensatory benefit to be paid for by the enterprise in question." [1]

These provisions do not apply in certain specific cases, for example, where wage decreases are the result of the operation of a sliding scale or of a decrease in the cost of living. It is clearly real wages which are to be maintained by giving labour compensatory advantages; but the High Authority can only take steps to restore them to the former level if the fall in remuneration which caused the drop in real wages has led to unfair competition.[2] This case appears more general but it is similar to that of abnormally low prices. Owing to the wide ramifications of wage relationships, there is the same problem of a double equilibrium on the one hand of wages within the Coal and Steel Community and on the other of wages within each member State. What is more serious is that the same reservation applies in this case also. The Community will only raise abnormally low wages and restore the level of real wages in order to ensure normal competition among undertakings in the common market. If an employer, by exploiting his labour force, were to obtain abnormally high profits, the High Authority would be unable to intervene. It can only deal with cases of unjust remuneration of workers if the employer's competitors are set at a disadvantage thereby. The Charter of the Coal and Steel Community neither authorises nor provides for a positive policy for the improvement of wages. Similarly, it neither authorises nor provides for an employment policy.

Measures relating to Employment

The Treaty states that " the mission of the European Coal and Steel Community is to contribute to economic expansion, the development of employment and the improvement of the standard of living in the participating countries through the institution, in harmony with the general economy of the member States, of a common market as defined in Article 4".[3]

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[1] Article 68, para. 3 of the Treaty.

[2] However, the French delegation's report on the Treaty states that " the principle laid down is intended to prevent the lowering of nominal wages ". — *Rapport de la délégation française sur le Traité et la Convention signés à Paris le 18 avril 1951* (Paris, 1951).

[3] Article 2 of the Treaty.

For this purpose it will organise the employment market and provide for remedies against technological unemployment.

The Employment Market.

There is to be a common market of skilled labour in the same way as there is to be a common market for the products.

"The member States bind themselves to renounce any restriction based on nationality against the employment in the coal and steel industries of workers of proven qualifications for such industries who possess the nationality of one of the member States; this commitment shall be subject to the limitations imposed by the fundamental ends of health and public order."[1] These limitations do not provide a means of escaping the commitment, since they have been laid down by the member States in agreement in the same way as the procedures for matching offers of employment and demands for employment (which will probably be done through a central clearing service). Skilled workers thus acquire a common professional nationality—a new and original conception but of limited practical importance.

As regards other workers, the Treaty only makes provision for re-employment in a case where, through a displacement of production, the industries in certain regions are hampered by a shortage of manpower when there is a surplus elsewhere. The member States "will adapt their immigration regulations to the extent necessary to eliminate that situation; in particular, they will facilitate the re-employment of workers from the coal and steel industries of other member States".[2] It is clear that the provisions relate to technological unemployment, against which other measures are also mentioned.

Action against Technological Unemployment.

"There is a risk that productivity may expand more rapidly than outlets, that is to say, more rapidly than production itself. In this event, a part of the labour force will inevitably be displaced. This risk must be accepted."[3] This risk can be counteracted by giving assistance to the workers and by creating new jobs.

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[1] Article 69, para. 1 of the Treaty.

[2] Article 69, para. 3.

[3] French delegation's report on the Treaty, *op. cit.*

"If the introduction of technical processes or new equipment within the framework of the general programmes of the High Authority should lead to an exceptional reduction in labour requirements of the coal or steel industries, creating special difficulties in one or more areas for the re-employment of the workers released, the High Authority . . . will grant non-reimbursable assistance to contribute to—

the payment of indemnities to tide the workers over until they can obtain new employment;

the granting of allowances to the workers for reinstallation expenses;

the financing of technical retraining for workers who are led to change their employment".[1]

The most important provisions, which are also to be found in Article 56, relate to the creation of new economic activities. In the same conditions the High Authority "may facilitate, in accordance with the methods provided for in Article 54, the financing of such programmes as it may approve for the creation, either in the industries subject to its jurisdiction or, with the concurrence of the Council, in any other industry, of new and economically sound activities capable of ensuring productive employment to the workers thus released". There are similar provisions regarding workers who become unemployed as a result of the establishment of the common market.[2]

"Taken in conjunction with the place given to the workers in the institutions of the Community (particularly in the Consultative Committee and the associations employed as intermediaries by the High Authority), and with the rules concerning wages, the provisions concerning re-employment both in normal times and during the transitional period are the main contribution of the Treaty to social progress."[3] Though interesting, these measures have neither the scope nor the importance of the measures taken to develop production (to which moreover they are subordinated). Wages are only to be protected in order to ensure normal competition among employers. The re-employment provisions only offer

[1] Article 56 of the Treaty.

[2] Section 33 of the Convention containing the transitional provisions.

[3] French delegation's report, *op. cit.*

palliatives to the technological unemployment caused by the establishment of the new economy. Employment policy, like wage policy, is left to the governments. The Community only contributes to these policies when necessary or when such a contribution results from the creation of the coal and steel market. Its Charter provides for action on behalf of labour solely as a condition or a consequence of its economic policy; it has neither a true social inspiration nor a social policy of its own. The creators of the Community have not given it such a mission. According to the Schuman Plan experts, it can only contribute to social development without being responsible for it, because its scope is restricted to the coal and steel industries, whereas wages and employment depend on general economic conditions in each country. The personal opinion of the author of this article is that the argument is not convincing. Production in the two basic industries concerned is just as dependent on general economic conditions; if production in these industries can be placed under the authority of the Community, why not wages and employment as well? The reason given neither explains nor justifies the fact that the economic powers of the Community are not accompanied by the corresponding social powers.

Conclusion

According to its Constitution the essential purpose of the European Coal and Steel Community is to amalgamate and expand production. To this end or as a secondary aim, it concerns itself with the workers in the industries concerned. While it may improve their situation, particularly as consumers, it also involves admitted risks that they will have to make at least temporary sacrifices as regards working conditions and therefore as regards living conditions. Obviously, this price of economic progress is only acceptable if its burdens are fairly distributed and if at the end it leads to further social progress. The Coal and Steel Community will be judged by this progress. Can the High Authority bring about such progress by going beyond its limited field of economic policy and assuming the social responsibility of improving labour conditions in a really human Community?

Apart from economic conditions, which at present are favourable, everything depends on the spirit of its members. But these men, whatever their competence and devotion, can give the Community only a short and artificial life while its scope is limited to coal and steel. The Community, although only just born, must expand if it is to continue to exist. Only the unification of Europe will enable its difficulties, insufficiencies and risks to be gradually reduced and eliminated. The creators of the Community have always considered it as an intermediary stage preparing and making possible the necessary transformation into a complete Community. "We and the other participants in this Treaty recognise that the creation of a European Coal and Steel Community is the first step towards European union. . . . We visualise, as a goal which is no longer out of reach, the union of all the peoples of Europe who love freedom and law in a common homeland bearing the venerable name of Europe."[1] Mr. Schuman expressed himself even more explicitly: "The essential problem is whether a supranational authority can be set up in the near future".[2]

Thus, the success of the European Coal and Steel Community and its value to the workers depend in the last resort on its being completed by the unification of Europe—a political event that would be the most important of this century and the most difficult to bring about.

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[1] Speech by Dr. Adenauer to the Foreign Press Association in Paris on 13 April 1951.

[2] Mr. Maurice Schumann, French Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, repeating the conclusions of a previous speech by Mr. Robert Schuman (*Le Monde*, 17 November 1951).

Organisation of Migration into Canada

by

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Readers of the* Review *will be aware that one of the functions of the I.L.O. in relation to migration is to disseminate information on the immigration countries. Since the war Canada has admitted rather more than half a million immigrants, and is thus one of the most important receiving countries. As is natural in view of its long experience, Canada has a carefully worked-out immigration policy, and the arrangements for dealing with immigrants are highly developed. The following description of Canadian law and practice in the field is therefore of considerable interest.

IN the three and a half centuries which have elapsed since the first white settlement, immigration from Europe has been a constant feature of Canada's economic, social and national life. For three hundred years immigrants, usually from Europe or people of European stock from the United States, arrived to help Canadians push civilisation to the west across an expanse of four thousand miles of land, and to the northwards until climate halted further advances of agriculture. Immigrants helped at all stages to build Canada as it is today. And as Canada needs more building, more immigrants will continue to come to help in the task—and to find new homes, new opportunities.

It is agreed by most students of the subject that Canada has shown a rather remarkable population growth. Numbered only in thousands up to little more than a century ago, the population of Canada then passed the million mark. At each ten-yearly census the figures have shown a large increase,

and preliminary results for the 1951 census set the total of Canadian residents at 13,893,208, an increase of 2,387,000 in the ten years after 1941. Immigration has added to each of the regular increases which have occurred, for most years saw the admission of several thousands. With her resources and her extended territory, Canada will continue to absorb more immigrants, probably for a few generations at least. Immigration will be a continuing public question.

Canada has a huge area; in fact it is the third largest country in the world, only Russia and China exceeding it in size. Were population to be measured against mere size, the 14 million residents of Canada might appear to the rest of the world to be lost in their territory. However, there are natural characteristics and considerations arising out of the economic organisation of the country which indicate that the inward movement of population must be treated with some care. Additional population will be helpful, but Canada is not in fact suffering from any measurable problem of under-population.

Only one-seventh of the total land surface is suitable for agriculture. While the area of settlement stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, expert opinion is that to the north the frontier for agriculture was reached three decades ago. In reality the habitable portion of Canada is much smaller than its area. Most of the population lives within a strip 200 miles wide along the United States-Canada border. Individual farms are large and increasingly mechanised; most farming may be described as commercial rather than subsistence; and there are not now any unworked arable acreages of great extent, as there were once.

These essential facts show that immigration must in future be absorbed on a basis of intensive, rather than extensive, development of resources and industry. The absorption of immigrants into the economy will depend upon the further expansion of existing industries, the development of new industries, the location of new resources, and the searching out of land settlement opportunities which may become available through adjustment or new methods. It is fairly clear, therefore, that the immigration of the future must be envisaged as the absorption of additional workers into an established and functioning economy.

One must not overlook an important view expressed by some authorities on population problems. Their view is that further immigration cannot be counted upon to add materially to the population. They believe (although they admit some doubt of the accuracy of the figures) that the numbers of persons who have emigrated from Canada, chiefly drawn by the lure of the prosperous economic conditions which have prevailed at times in the United States, about equal the numbers of immigrants into Canada since her history began; and that incoming immigrants have undersold Canadian workers who, being readily adaptable to conditions in the United States, have been "driven out" to that country. Even if this view is not entirely tenable, emigration has been of sufficient volume to make further caution in immigration policy advisable.

Canada's birth rate has been relatively high and the natural growth of population has been substantial. For many years the natural increase has been the most important source of population growth, but immigration has also contributed considerably.

Other benefits accompanying immigration should not, of course, be overlooked: even if capital accretions are bound to be reduced substantially by economic conditions in Europe, the techniques and skills of immigrants are still looked to in Canada with hope of consequent benefit.

Public Opinion on Immigration

Public opinion in Canada on the immigration question can be discerned with some certainty. Canadians feel that for several reasons advantage should be taken of immigration to increase Canada's population. The existing population is not large in relation to the habitable area and known resources. An increased population would give economic strength, a larger consumer market and less dependence on world markets; it would reduce the overhead cost of government, of transport and of similar vital public facilities; it would lead to a greater diversity of industry and perhaps to additional technical and industrial ingenuity. A larger population would also lend greater defensive strength. With overcrowding in

Western Europe, there is some feeling that Canada's capacity of absorption should be used to offset part of Europe's problem. As a short-term measure, immigration is the ready solution proposed when Canadian workers cannot be found to fill employment vacancies. Even French-speaking Canadians, who were at one time rather hostile to any admission of new immigrants, now seem to have modified their views to some extent.

In so far as the trade unions have expressed their views on immigration, they have insisted that immigration must be developed with caution and immigrants selected with care. In fairness to the immigrants themselves and to the workers of Canada, the trade unions consider that immigrants should only be admitted to the extent that they can be absorbed into the Canadian working force without detriment to Canadian workers. These sentiments are a fairly accurate reflection of the general thinking of Canadians on the problems associated with any sizable movement of immigrants. There are few people in Canada who would urge unrestricted migration.

The attitude of the public to immigration may be summed up thus : immigrants should be encouraged to come to Canada, in such numbers as can be absorbed readily into the Canadian economy at the time. They should be selected with care as regards health, traditional background and customs, and they should be of a type who will fit into Canadian ways and who may eventually become suitable citizens.

Government Policy

The present policy of the Government of Canada with regard to immigration was set forth in some detail by the Right Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, then Prime Minister, speaking to the Canadian House of Commons on 1 May 1947. No change in the principles laid down at that time has been announced by the Government since, so that the policy then announced may be taken as a general guide to present practice under Canada's migration programme.

The main points of the statement on the immigration policy of the Government of Canada were as follows :

(a) Canada needs more population for economic reasons, and also for the purpose of eventually building up national defence.

(b) The policy of the Government would be to foster the growth of Canada's population by encouraging immigration.

(c) Steps would be taken to ensure the careful selection and permanent settlement of such numbers of immigrants as could be absorbed with advantage into the national economy.

(d) Canada is perfectly within her rights in selecting the persons regarded as desirable future citizens; it is not a right of any alien to enter Canada—it is a privilege. While Canada would discriminate, she would try to avoid objectionable discrimination.

(e) The Government did not share the fear frequently expressed in Canada that immigration might lead to a reduction in the standard of living; on the contrary its feeling was that living standards should benefit from careful immigration.

(f) The inflow of immigrants must be adjusted to Canada's capacity to absorb.

(g) It had not been and would not be the policy to encourage the settlement in Canada of persons of Asiatic origin, for this would give rise to social and economic problems which might affect good international relations.

(h) As a short-term policy Canada would accept a number of post-war refugees, who could be used to meet existing labour shortages.

(i) The Government was endeavouring to overcome ocean-shipping shortages and to build up its administrative machinery.

The Prime Minister added that Canada was prepared to make reciprocal agreements with other countries regarding the admission of nationals for permanent residence. This statement was made mainly with Asia in mind: mutual agreements have since been concluded with some Asiatic Powers for the admission of limited numbers of their nationals.

Although not stated in precise terms, it was implicit in the announcement that the immigration programme of the Government envisaged a movement of population from the British Isles and those countries of Europe from which emigration is permitted in present circumstances.

Since the Government's announcement of policy, there has taken place a considerable expansion in Canada's facilities for interesting and examining prospective emigrants in Europe, as well as for reception and settlement after arrival in Canada.

Immigration Legislation

Canada is governed under a federal system; in addition to the central or federal Government, there are provincial governments for each of the ten provinces. The British North America Act, which is the Canadian constitution, divides the entire field of potential legislation between the federal authority and the provincial authorities. Under this basic law both the federal Parliament and the provincial legislatures may make laws in relation to the entry of immigrants, but if there is any conflict between statutes the federal law prevails. The federal Parliament has maintained legislation controlling the admission of immigrants to the country, and in practice the primacy of the federal Government in immigration matters is recognised by the provincial governments. Some of the provinces have from time to time undertaken to encourage migration from abroad or have assisted immigrants to establish themselves, but these activities are carried out within federal regulations. Consultation between the two levels of government and a large measure of co-operation between federal and provincial agencies in regard to immigration are the customary procedure. The provinces have not adopted laws on the entry of immigrants within their jurisdictions.

The statute of the federal Parliament of Canada which regulates the admission of every person entering the country is the Immigration Act. While applying generally to all entrants, most of the Act deals with immigrants, that is, any person other than a Canadian citizen or a person with established Canadian domicile who enters Canada with the intention of making his permanent home there. This Act is administered by the Department of Citizenship and Immigration, a Department presided over by the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration, through its Immigration Branch. The present statute is not of recent origin; in fact it represents an evolution of

many decades of immigration legislation in Canada, based upon a very considerable experience.

The basic features of the Immigration Act in relation to immigrants may be summed up thus:

(1) The Act defines certain "prohibited classes"; these are categories of persons usually refused admission to any country. They include mental defectives and persons suffering from serious diseases or with fairly serious physical defects, criminals and beggars, persons liable to become a public charge, persons deemed likely to advocate the overthrow of the system of government by force, enemy aliens and spies, persons not of good character, most illiterates, persons whose migration is assisted financially by a charitable organisation (unless official approval has been given) and persons failing to comply with entry regulations.

(2) In so far as the Act is concerned, applicants for entry may be admitted if they do not come under the "prohibited classes". The Act itself does not limit entry by race, nationality, occupation or otherwise; but a large element of flexibility is introduced into the operations under the statute by provision for regulations, not inconsistent with the Act, to be made by Order in Council, which may *inter alia* prohibit the landing of any class, nationality or occupational group of immigrants because of adverse economic conditions, or because such immigrants are held to be peculiarly difficult to assimilate by reason of their customs and mode of life, or because of apparent inability to assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship within a reasonable time. The practice has been to control the volume of immigration, as to both number and type, by supplementing regulations made under this authority.

(3) Immigrants may be denied admission unless they possess a sum of money fixed by regulation at a figure deemed sufficient to guarantee the immigrant's establishment. This is a most important principle available for the purpose of adjusting the stream of immigration from time to time as economic conditions may vary.

(4) Immigrants must be examined at the Canadian port of entry, whatever the means of transport.

(5) Examinations for health, suitability and admissibility as required under the Act may also take place in the immigrant's country of origin—a provision clearly intended to minimise the risk of hardship by rejections at Canadian ports.

(6) Canadian domicile is acquired by an immigrant after five years' continuous residence in Canada, and is maintained by continuing residence. A person who has established domicile, even though still not a Canadian citizen, acquires certain rights to continuing residence in Canada, providing he does not forfeit domicile by having left Canada to live permanently elsewhere and that he does not commit any of certain offences against the State.

(7) There is provision for the deportation of immigrants in certain cases : persons falling within the " prohibited classes " who may have gained entry, persons who commit certain serious offences after landing, and persons who have become a public charge. The grounds for deportation are narrowed somewhat after the immigrant acquires domicile. There is a right of appeal against deportation in most instances, except in some cases of adverse medical report.

(8) The Act endeavours to give some protection to immigrants while Canada-bound by ship, on landing and for a short time afterwards.

Regulations made under the Act provide most of the framework required to carry out its intentions and purposes. The programme outlined by the Government in 1947 could thus be put into operation without any amendment of the Act itself.

The regulations which have been most important in practice have been those relating to the types or classes of immigrants who are admissible. For instance, an Order in Council dating back several years prohibits the landing in Canada of any immigrant of any Asiatic race, except certain relatives of Canadian citizens legally admitted to and resident in Canada. An Order in Council of 1947 requires all immigrants coming from a country with a higher tuberculosis rate than that in Canada to undergo an X-ray chest examination.

An Order in Council of 9 June 1950 (P.C. 2856) sets out the types of immigrants who may now be admitted. These

regulations prohibit as from 1 July 1950 the landing in Canada of immigrants of all classes except the following:

(1) British subjects or Irish citizens from the United Kingdom, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa or the United States, having sufficient means to maintain themselves until they have secured employment (the term "British subject" means a person born or naturalised in the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand or South Africa, or a citizen of Ireland who has become a citizen of the United Kingdom by registration under the British Nationality Act, 1948).

(2) Citizens of the United States, having sufficient means to maintain themselves until they have secured employment.

(3) Citizens of France, born in France or in either of two French islands off the Canadian coast, having sufficient means to maintain themselves until they have secured employment.

(4) Persons who satisfy the Minister responsible for immigration that—

(a) they are suitable immigrants, having regard to the climatic, social, educational, industrial, labour or other conditions or requirements of Canada; and that

(b) they are not undesirable within the meaning of the Act, especially because of probable inability to become readily adapted and integrated into the life of a Canadian community and to assume the duties of Canadian citizenship within a reasonable time.

(5) Persons who, having entered Canada as non-immigrants, enlisted in the Canadian Armed Forces and have been honourably discharged.

A general proviso at the end of the regulations states that these shall not apply to immigrants of any Asiatic race. Since the adoption of the regulations the Government has declared by Order that citizens of Germany are no longer "enemy aliens"; Germans have therefore become eligible for consideration as applicants for migration to Canada.

As the entry records show, the regulations fit the case of migration movements from Europe and the United States.

Persons from other continents, who might be found admissible under the regulations, have not in the past exhibited an active interest in moving to Canada in any considerable numbers.

Administration

To assist the Government in the formulation of immigration policy there has been established the Interdepartmental Advisory Committee on Immigration. This Committee, presided over by the Deputy Minister of Citizenship and Immigration, consists of senior permanent officials from the Departments of Citizenship and Immigration, Labour, External Affairs, Finance, and National Health and Welfare. Representatives of other departments with an interest in particular issues attend meetings of the Committee from time to time. The Committee makes for a co-ordination among departments of recommendations on immigration policy, which go forward to the Government.

The Department of Citizenship and Immigration, being responsible for the administration of the Immigration Act and regulations, has executive responsibility for the administration of government policy on migration both at home and abroad. It is the responsibility of the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration and his Department to endeavour to determine in advance the absorptive capacity of Canada for immigration over a selected period, to discover where suitable and admissible immigrants are available, to control the flow and reduce any risk of failure of the absorptive capacity, and to arrange and execute the selection and processing of the prospective immigrants. These functions may, and very frequently do, involve arrangements with European governments which are agreeable to the emigration of some of their nationals, and arrangements to ensure the availability of necessary ocean shipping.

While arrangements with governments are necessary from time to time, these arrangements are of a rather informal character. It has not been Canadian practice to conclude formal bilateral agreements with European countries covering the migration of their nationals to Canada.

For several years Canada has maintained an establishment in Western Europe for the examination of migrants before

their departure from a European port. This arrangement saves many immigrants from the disappointment of rejection, which might occur if their examination were left entirely to the time of their arrival in Canada. Moreover, it has been felt that examination abroad makes it easier to enforce the Canadian regulations and to obtain a suitable type of new settler.

It has usually been found that prospective migrants in fairly large numbers have offered themselves voluntarily, without official invitation, for entry into Canada. Since the war, however, experience appears to have varied ; money regulations, restrictions on departure and many personal reasons have frequently held back prospective immigrants where numerous applications might have been expected, quite apart from the effect of the shipping shortage. In spite of the difficulties there has been a substantial migration to Canada from Europe in the last six years, and it is probably true to say that no vacancy in Canada that could have been filled by an immigrant worker has remained unfilled indefinitely because of momentary difficulties in conducting a migration programme.

The Immigration Branch maintains several offices in Europe. The London office, in addition to its dealings with migrants from the British Isles, has some over-all responsibilities in connection with Continental migration. In the British Isles there are branch offices in some large cities. On the Continent officers are stationed in the various countries from which Canada expects to derive immigrants. Each of these missions is able to arrange for a complete examination of any person wishing to migrate. Accommodation is provided for migrants in a large number of cases, in order to reduce their difficulties in applying for entry to Canada.

Working in close collaboration with the Immigration Branch, three other government departments maintain offices in Europe—the Department of Labour, the Department of National Health and Welfare, and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

Through its London office the Department of Labour assists prospective migrants by furnishing advice on employment matters. It also endeavours to find immigrant workers for jobs (usually skilled jobs) which it has not been possible to

fill in Canada. The Department also maintains an office in Germany, from which officers travel to various Continental locations when it is agreed that the immigration examination should include a special labour examination.

Where numbers of workers are required for a particular industry, or where workers with a high degree of skill are needed, the Department of Labour has sometimes adopted the course of encouraging the industry to send selection officers to Europe, to assist on the labour side of the examination of prospective immigrants. This practice was followed particularly in regard to displaced persons, but is being continued in connection with other migrants.

The London office of the Department of National Health and Welfare, working with the Immigration Branch, arranges for medical examinations in Europe, which are carried out by Canadian doctors in most cases but by local doctors in others. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police maintains officers to examine immigrants from the point of view of security.

The two Canadian transcontinental railway companies maintain offices in various parts of Europe, and several of these offices on the Continent are equipped to assist in furnishing information to persons interested in migration to Canada. The railways' representatives make contact with a number of persons anxious to proceed to Canada, especially for farm work and particularly from Northern Europe. If thought acceptable, these applicants are then examined by the immigration authorities in the customary manner.

The Department of Citizenship and Immigration has issued a series of information booklets in recent years, touching on the aspects of Canadian life and ways which are of chief interest to the intending migrant. These are published in English and French, and one—a handbook—has been printed also in several other languages of Western Europe. In addition, the Department of Labour has issued a booklet on working and living conditions, and numerous films on Canada are available to Europeans through Canada's offices abroad.

Selection and Movement

The principal object of the examination of migrants to Canada is to ensure that the applicant is admissible under the

regulations : that he is of an admissible category and does not fall into the prohibited classes, that he will take with him sufficient funds to maintain himself until he is likely to find work, and that he is not likely to become a public charge. Thus the examination must determine, among other things, the medical, mental and physical condition of the applicant, and his employability especially in view of employment conditions obtaining at the time in Canada. In recent years a special security examination has been added.

Immigration officials abroad and officers of the Department of Labour working in association with them are kept informed of employment conditions in Canada, and selections are made with the home economic situation in mind. Where migrants are passed after relatives in Canada have asked for their admission, it is the practice to have the Canadian resident accept a responsibility for the settlement of the immigrant on arrival ; in these cases employment does not raise any considerable problems. On the other hand, most of the migrants from the Continent who are regarded as workers are either passed because known vacancies await them, or because they are of a type to accept employment in industries or occupations where a demand is known to exist (mainly in primary industries for men and in domestic work for women). In the case of prospective migrants from the British Isles, the situation is different ; being under no language handicap and being largely intellectual or skilled workers, they are permitted to migrate if otherwise qualified, though they are given employment counsel and advice by Canadian officers before they depart.

Where a family is migrating, all members of the family must be examined, medically and otherwise, whether all proceed at once or whether the head of the family proceeds alone, to be followed later by the family. This procedure eliminates the risk of the family being permanently broken up through one member being refused entry at any stage.

Particularly in view of housing difficulties, and because the type of job immediately available may be situated at some distance from suitable living quarters for the family, it is sometimes more practical for the father of a family to go to Canada first and send for his family as soon as he can make a home for them. But it is the official view in Canada that the

family should be brought together as soon as practicable and that it should not be divided unnecessarily.

Except in unusual circumstances, such as those surrounding refugees, each migrant from Europe must bring with him a valid passport of his country of origin, with a valid visa and the official Canadian stamp showing medical approval. Actually Canada does not require passports for admissible British and French migrants, but their own countries require those persons upon leaving to carry this document. Citizens of the United States, entering from that country, do not require passports.

The Canadian Government does not itself operate vessels for the movement of migrants; any government assistance to shipping is in the form of special arrangements with operators of ships. In 1951, for example, Canada made special arrangements with the International Refugee Organisation to provide extra passages for Canada-bound migrants, other than refugees, for whom facilities were lacking. At times during recent years the Government has also put into operation plans for reducing air passage fares for immigrants from Britain, but ocean travel is the means of transport required for the movement of the great majority of migrants, and government efforts have been necessary at most times to arrange for a good part of the shipping needed to carry the flow of migrants. Had the Government not interested itself to the extent of giving some general financial assistance in return for shipping arrangements on occasions, shipping would have fallen short of migration requirements.

By far the greater part of Canada experiences a winter which is characterised by a blanket of snow and periodic low temperatures. These weather conditions cause a winter slackening of outdoor work, with a consequential reduction in the demand for workers. This has given rise to the tradition that the movement of migrants should be confined mainly to about eight months, and that the departure of workers intending to seek employment on arrival in Canada should be discouraged during the winter season. Perhaps the views of most Canadians have been reflected by trade union insistence on winter restrictions on the inward movement.

Only quite recently has Canada for the first time undertaken to lend direct financial assistance to any class of immigrants who might be moving to Canada. This innovation was

introduced to ensure a steady flow of immigration in the face of money difficulties in Europe. In 1951 the Department of Citizenship and Immigration was provided by the Government with a fund of $3,000,000, to be available for loans to certain intending immigrants, and a substantial number moved under the scheme. Late in the immigration season of 1951 this scheme was suspended, and no official announcement has been made concerning its recommencement. On a much smaller scale, the Department of Labour during 1951 advanced loans to a number of girls from the British Isles undertaking to accept employment in Canada in household work for a time.

There have been other loan schemes in recent years. With official approval several church and ethnic organisations have assisted migrants to move to Canada since the war, and some employers in need of workers have done likewise, usually by providing a recoverable loan. However, a great many of the immigrants still pay their own fares, while relatives in Canada assist in financing a substantial number.

Reception

As has been mentioned, the Immigration Act requires each applicant for landing in Canada as an immigrant to be examined when he seeks entry at any Canadian port, regardless of the means of travel to the port of entry. In the case of immigrants already examined overseas, the examination at the port takes account of the earlier examination. The documents of all entrants must be in order.

Upon being granted admission, the immigrant is free to travel to any part of Canada, subject to any undertaking he may have given to a representative of the Government to work for a period in a particular industry or occupation. Immigration officers are available at all ports of entry to give general information to the newly arrived migrants. At ocean ports representatives of the Department of Labour, who are usually officials of the National Employment Service, advise immigrants as regards work opportunities, waiting jobs or the most promising job prospects.

On arrival at the Canadian port, most immigrants soon depart for some destination that they have had in mind—frequently the location of some relative or friend from the

homeland. With normal voluntary migration, the cost of inland transport is met by the immigrant himself or his friends. However, there are special cases; for example, the Department of Labour has in recent years paid the cost of mass movements of women for domestic work and of men for farm labour; and in some cases where immigrants have been recruited especially for Canadian employers the employer has either paid the inland fare or lent money to the immigrant for this purpose.

The great distances, which are a feature of Canadian geography, frequently involve lengthy train journeys for the newcomers. For many years the Canadian railway companies have assisted migrants by providing a slight reduction in railway fare available to them for a special class of travel.

The Department of Labour operates two hostels, one near Montreal and one near Toronto, at which a maximum of 2,200 immigrants may be accommodated. Some immigrants are directed to these for a very short period upon arrival, depending upon the circumstances. Giving preference to women and families, the Department endeavours to look after those who may be travel-weary or slightly indisposed after the sea voyage but not requiring hospitalisation, and persons whose settlement arrangements are pending for a few days. The immigration authorities have immigration halls in nine larger cities, where immigrants may rest while waiting for transport arrangements to be made; in some cases sleeping accommodation (and occasionally eating accommodation) is also available. These halls are intended principally for "stop overs", usually of an unavoidable or unforeseen nature.

It will be appreciated that immigrants from areas where the prevailing language is English or French are in a much better position to attend to their own arrangements on arrival; but for the others language difficulties are overcome, and officers of the Immigration Branch and other government agencies help to the limit of their capacities to aid newcomers in carrying out their plans or in forming plans.

It should be noted that Canadian customs regulations afford considerable scope to immigrants to take their personal belongings into Canada free of tax as "settlers' effects". This term covers the tools of a trade or profession (including small farm-tools) not large enough to class as machines.

Immigrants and Employment

It is to be expected that immigrants of working age and of the marital classes, who habitually must maintain themselves and any dependants through their personal exertions, will require employment shortly after landing in Canada. In fact, with the exception of certain older people brought in as relatives by Canadian residents who undertake to care for them and of minor children and most wives, the newcomers will virtually all seek employment. In these circumstances it becomes of first importance, in discussing the organisation of migration, to examine the more important considerations and arrangements which bear upon the immigrant's becoming established in a gainful occupation.

In mass immigration movements many factors must be considered. A good standard of physical and mental fitness being required for entry in any event, those factors are already taken care of when the immigrant is granted admittance. But the factors of age, language, past occupational experience, apparent adaptability and other related factors must all be taken into account against a Canadian background at the time of examination, and they must again be weighed in cases where immigrants are to be found jobs after arrival.

There are several agencies to assist the immigrant in search of employment. For the future the main responsibility for locating jobs, particularly for immigrants not coming forward for known vacancies, will fall upon the National Employment Service, with its 200 offices in cities and towns across Canada.

The Special Services Branch of the Department of Labour has responsibility for the placement of farm workers who engage as farm labourers, and in this field works in close co-operation with the provincial departments of agriculture. The same Branch is also responsible for arranging placements in primary industries (such as forestry and mining), in certain construction projects, and (in the case of women) for job arrangements in regard to household domestic workers. The Special Services Branch, in close collaboration with the Immigration Branch and the National Employment Service, has a general responsibility for that part of the whole programme which falls to the lot of the Department of Labour.

Persons who may be suitable for land settlement are dealt with principally by the Settlement Division of the Immigration Branch, which also gives general assistance regarding placement, especially in agriculture.

In post-war migration from the continent of Europe practically all migrants have fallen into one of three classes: (1) those proceeding to relatives or friends who have promised to accept responsibility for them; (2) those selected for particular available jobs; (3) those passed for employment in industries known to be in some need of workers. It is reported that in 1951 only a reasonably small minority of arrivals belonged to the category where immediate placement proved to be a problem. Of course, some of the placements proved temporary, or individuals or groups required readjustment; but generally speaking the placement process, aided by a high level of employment, did not present insuperable difficulties.

There are bound to be employment problems. Machines and methods of work differ in many cases between the continent of Europe and Canada. A trade acquired overseas may be found only partly useful, or even useless, on arrival. These facts cause difficulties for the immigrant and for those seeking to help him into employment. They point to the need for a large measure of occupational adaptability on the part of the immigrant, in so far as that quality can be discovered in an examination. But these difficulties, added to the initial language handicap, furnish the reason why stress is placed so frequently on ability to start work as an unskilled worker, even if the individual has learnt a trade, in the case of the immigrant from the Continent.

In late years a large number of Continental immigrants have been asked to sign an undertaking to work a specified time—usually one year—for the same employer or in the same industry, as a condition of entry. Such an undertaking then becomes a moral obligation of the immigrant towards the Government. But the undertaking, which is sometimes a necessary guarantee to an employer before he will risk the expense of aiding a worker to migrate, is also some guarantee to the immigrant, for it means that during his first year (perhaps his most difficult period) he has a strong assurance of steady employment. Moreover, it is the practice where undertakings are sought in regard to employment with a

particular employer for the Department of Labour to go carefully into the terms of employment with the employer, and to seek assurance that conditions will be fair. In farm work and domestic service for women, it has come to be the practice of the Department of Labour to fix minimum standards to govern the employment of immigrants who have undertaken to work in these occupations.

Although, broadly speaking and subject to any undertaking he gives before he is admitted, an immigrant may engage in any occupation or profession for which he may be hired, there are the limitations customary in most countries. Many learned professions, for example, rather jealously guard admission to their ranks. Some trades, particularly those which may involve risk to life and property, require permits, which are not too difficult to obtain for those qualified. But these difficult entrances are exceptions : most immigrants may expect to be able to compete with considerable freedom for jobs.

Immigrants from the British Isles are in somewhat different case from those from the Continent. Trade and professional differences are much less. Language is no handicap. Many conditions are similar to those in the homeland. Problems of absorption here are of a different order, for they arise more often out of the fact that the jobs sought by the immigrants are not necessarily among those subject to worker shortages in Canada, or else they are posts where employment contacts are less readily formed. The case of immigrants from France is not unlike that of the British in several particulars.

The trade unions are free of government control and fix the conditions of their own membership. It is not the practice of the trade unions to make citizenship status a qualification for membership, and immigrants are therefore admitted to the unions on the same basis as Canadian citizens. Of course, especially among the more skilled workers, the unions have established their rules for entrance to the trade or craft and do not necessarily admit all applicants ; in these cases an immigrant finds himself in much the same position as a Canadian who may claim competence at the craft but may have to seek trade union membership to gain employment.

In view of what has been said of Canadian farming developments, it may be asked if opportunities still exist for land settlement—at one time a very important part of immigration

to Canada. The answer is that they do. It is the responsibility of the Settlement Division of the Immigration Branch to aid would-be settlers, and the Division is meeting with some success. Of 13,000 families from Holland arriving in 1951, 4,200 had been settled on farms by the end of the year. This is not pioneering settlement; it is settlement on farms hitherto in operation, by purchase, rental or "on shares". It should be added that these immigrants were selected with land settlement in view, and that their case is not typical of all groups of immigrants. For successful land settlement it is agreed that some prior working experience on a Canadian farm is strongly indicated, such are the differences between European and Canadian agricultural methods and machines.

Each of the two national railway systems also has a colonisation department to counsel immigrants interested in farm settlement.

Legal Protection of Immigrants

The Immigration Act endeavours to give a measure of legal protection to immigrants at various stages of their migration.

By forbidding any person in Canada to circulate false information outside Canada in regard to either the availability or the absence of employment opportunities, with the intention of misleading prospective migrants resident abroad, an effort is made to protect both the migrant and the country.

Moreover, several provisions of the Act seek to protect the immigrant while he is on the way to Canada by ship. Penalties are set out for masters and crew of ships bringing immigrants to Canada, in the event of failure to comply on the voyage with the laws of the foreign country in which the port of departure is situated, bearing on the duties of the master or crew toward the immigrants; and for any breach of the contract made by the immigrant for his passage. In order to give protection to women immigrants, penalties are provided for certain offences if they occur in Canadian territorial waters. Ships are required to prepare and have available specific records of immigrants carried. Masters of vessels must make a detailed report if any immigrant dies *en route*, and must account for the personal effects of deceased immigrant-

passengers. There is provision for control of the sale of intoxicating liquors to incoming third-class passengers. On arrival at the Canadian port the immigrant is given the right to stay on board ship for 24 hours if accommodation or conveyance ashore is not available immediately. Very important is a provision to penalise vessels arriving at Canadian ports with an overload of immigrants.

The Act provides that on arrival immigrants and their luggage must be landed free of expense; and in order to protect them immediately on landing from paying higher than normal prices for inland transport, the conveyance of luggage or boarding-house accommodation, the Deputy Minister of Citizenship and Immigration may issue licences to persons soliciting such custom.

The Act also authorises the Government to make regulations to ensure fair treatment of immigrants by hotels and boarding-houses during a period of three months following entry and to safeguard the interests of immigrants who patronise fee-charging employment agents (though for the most part operations by such agents are now illegal in any case).

Once they have landed in Canada, and whether they are aliens or British subjects, immigrants enjoy full legal rights and protection under the laws, both federal and provincial, criminal and civil. As a corollary of this, they have the same obligations under all laws as Canadian citizens. Of course, until he has acquired citizenship, an immigrant is not entitled to vote or to contest public office; and a few statutes which provide for pecuniary benefit to be paid to certain people (as for example some social security measures) place some limitations on the acquisition of rights by non-citizens. But these are exceptional cases, and may be considered as somewhat apart from the general laws.

In general, the immigrant has the same police protection as other residents; he is given full access to the courts, and may own and dispose of real estate and movable property; when in employment he is protected and governed by the laws applying to conditions of work in the employment concerned (such as laws on hours of work, minimum wages, and vacations with pay). The immigrant is entitled to make full use of governmental agencies serving the public, on the same conditions as citizens.

The position of the British immigrant differs in some respects from that of the alien immigrant. A British subject who has landed as an immigrant is entitled, if otherwise qualified, to vote at national elections after residing in Canada for twelve months; in one or two instances also the treatment of British subjects under the social security laws is analogous to that of citizens rather than to that of aliens.

Social Security

A review of the chief Canadian social security measures shows there is only one scheme under which citizenship requirements operate against the immigrant, and even in that case this occurs only in certain provinces. On the other hand, there are residence rules in connection with some plans.

If he enters insurable employment, the immigrant is covered by unemployment insurance from the time he starts work. Similarly, he is entitled to workmen's compensation in the event of occupational accident or disease.

Family allowances are paid to the parents of non-working children up to 16 years of age, after one year of residence on the part of the family.

Old-age pensions are payable to persons aged 65 to 69 if they are in need, and to all persons from the age of 70. There is a 20-year residence qualification.

Allowances are paid to blind persons commencing at the age of 21, with a 10-year residence requirement.

As regards mothers' allowances, payable to widowed mothers with children up to school-leaving age (and in some cases to deserted wives and wives of prisoners), there are some restrictions which affect alien immigrants in about half of the provinces.

The worker makes a direct contribution only to unemployment insurance; the employers pay for workmen's compensation, and the other schemes mentioned are financed out of general taxes.

There are many programmes of public assistance, hospitalisation and medical care operated by the municipalities and the provincial governments, usually paid out of general taxes. There are also many voluntary community organisations.

While local residence rules apply in many cases, it is broadly true to say that there is no discrimination against the immigrant.

Special arrangements for certain forms of medical care for immigrants during what may be considered their period of settlement are now in effect. The Department of Citizenship and Immigration provides emergency medical care for some immigrants if it is required within a short time of arrival. Under an agreement with the provincial governments, the Federal Department of Labour provides a plan for hospital care covering several classes of immigrants coming forward under employment schemes; this plan applies to the immigrants if they are in need and if hospitalisation must start within twelve months of arrival in Canada. Persons admitted at the request of relatives residing in Canada who have a measure of responsibility for the immigrant are not covered by the Department of Labour plan. Medical care, including hospitalisation, is an administrative problem under regular review. The needs are variable, but the measures taken appear to be meeting the situation of the moment.

Social Integration

No feature of immigration is more important than the social integration of immigrants after arrival in a new country. Nothing will tend to make the newcomer more discontented with his lot in his chosen land than to feel that he is not becoming a part of the community which he had adopted—to feel that he had adopted a country but that the country is not prepared to adopt him.

Immigrants whose maternal language is either English or French raise no noticeable problems of integration. The task of facilitating assimilation really relates to immigrants whose mother tongue is not one of either of Canada's two languages.

Opinion in Canada is against the formation of "islands" of newcomers from a particular country. This feeling is prompted on the one side by an unanimous opinion that persons entering Canada for permanent residence should wish to become Canadian in every sense, and on the other by a desire to absorb the immigrants, to assist them in becoming part of the community.

Canada enjoys one advantage from the viewpoint of the immigrant: the country has been accustomed to receiving immigrants, and this fact is reflected in the attitude of individual Canadians toward newcomers, and also in official and organised public efforts to assist the immigrant in becoming established and in feeling at home.

The Canadian Citizenship Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration has a responsibility to acquaint immigrants with Canadian traditions, government and the like, and thus to assist them in acquiring some background knowledge of their new country. This is done by publishing brochures, by close co-operation with voluntary public organisations also endeavouring to help the newcomer, and by lectures, broadcasts and other similar means.

In many of the cities the provincial department of education provides classes for immigrants, usually in the evening, particularly in language, geography and history; commonly these are free of charge. As a knowledge of either English or French is required for gaining citizenship status, there is every incentive to the immigrant to avail himself of these facilities, where they are within reach. Reports indicate that the enrolment of immigrants is gratifying.

There are also several national public associations of citizens, which give much leadership to the immigrants in their cultural and civic problems. Prominent among these are, for example, the Association for Adult Education and the Canadian Citizenship Council. A very substantial number of organisations, in fact, give practical assistance, sometimes material, frequently social; these include the large number of church and charitable organisations, as well as a series of ethnic organisations made up of immigrants or the children of immigrants from various lands. These ethnic associations have proved very helpful, since some of the immigrants' language difficulties can be overcome for the moment at least.

All Canadian provinces have compulsory school attendance legislation, requiring parents to send their children to school up to 14, 15 or 16 years of age, depending on the province. These laws are applicable to the children of all permanent residents of Canada. School attendance by children of immigrants helps the youngsters to acquire a Canadian language

quickly, and this in turn not infrequently assists the elder members of the family also to learn either English or French. School contacts train the children in Canadian traditions, and certainly help to root the family in the community.

Various civic societies, either for the promotion of charitable or kindred pursuits, or for the promotion of sociability among their members, are open to immigrants. In fact, it is found in practice that barriers to absorption exist in so few directions that they are negligible, given the inclination of the immigrant himself to become assimilated.

Traditionally it has been felt that an introduction to Canada through initial association with the agricultural industry is a sound basis for the assimilation of the immigrant. This is still found to work out in practice. The farming community, especially tolerant of the immigrant, usually make him feel at home, while the close association of the farm employer and the immigrant worker provides a groundwork in citizenship which may not be possible, for example, in a mass production industry. Those who are responsible for the settlement of immigrants are therefore inclined to recommend the approach through agriculture in as many cases as possible, and official opinion is that results warrant the traditional conviction of the efficacy of that course.

Citizenship

It will be recalled that in Canadian immigration legislation and practice stress is laid upon permanent residence and suitability for eventual citizenship. Naturally the question arises in the mind of any person considering permanent residence in Canada whether he may eventually secure the status of citizenship, and what are the procedures. While the procedures are carried through with great care, they are not involved, and are designed to assist the immigrant to become a citizen when he qualifies—which is Canada's desire. The granting of citizenship or naturalisation is regulated under the Canadian Citizenship Act, administered by the Canadian Citizenship Registration Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration.

After five years' residence in Canada any British subject who entered as an immigrant may apply for a certificate of

citizenship, and in most cases the certificate will be issued without any court appearance as soon as certain general qualifications have been established.

For the alien immigrant the procedure is somewhat different. In the normal case of an adult, the applicant must—

(a) make a declaration of intention to become a Canadian citizen;

(b) after five years' continuous residence (within five years of the declaration) file with the local court a petition for citizenship;

(c) appear before a judge as notified, for examination on knowledge of citizenship and on language ability in English or French.

If the judge makes a favourable recommendation to the Department, the applicant must appear in court to take an oath of allegiance to Her Majesty the Queen, to renounce any foreign allegiance, and to receive the certificate of citizenship. The alien immigrant has then become a naturalised Canadian, and a citizen of Canada in all senses.

Persons born in Canada are Canadian citizens, even though the parents may be aliens. Naturalisation of the responsible parent carries with it naturalisation of minor alien-born children, but certificates of citizenship for the children must be applied for. At present, once a husband is naturalised, his alien wife may apply for naturalisation under a simplified procedure, requiring legal entry and only one year's residence in Canada. Foreign-born children of immigrants may apply for their own naturalisation upon reaching the age of 21 and fulfilling the usual conditions.

Present Scale of Immigration

The scale of the post-war movement of immigrants into Canada, in spite of the obstacles already mentioned, will be appreciated when it is realised that immigrants from all sources admitted from 1 September 1945 to 30 September 1951 totalled 566,248. This total comprises 196,210 British subjects from all overseas sources, and 52,642 immigrants from the

United States (chiefly but not exclusively citizens of that country). While there were small movements from various parts of the world, by far the largest part of the balance consisted of migrants from the continent of Europe, including 144,886 displaced persons and members of their families admitted into Canada up to 30 September 1951. It seems likely that 1951 will be found to have been the post-war year with most immigration; up to 30 September admissions aggregated 129,885. A target figure of 150,000 had been fixed for the calendar year 1951, and the prospect was that this figure might be exceeded by about 20,000. It is estimated that the number of workers admitted (that is, the grand total minus dependent persons) will be approximately 100,000.

Another measure of the proportions of migration into Canada is given by governmental expenditures under this heading. A survey made in the late months of 1951 indicated government expenditures on the various phases of the migration programme of approximately nine million dollars for the current fiscal year; most of this total was federal expenditure but it also included some small expenditures on the part of the provincial governments. The total did not include loans to migrants for ocean fares.

Although 1951 may show more immigrants admitted into Canada than any other year since the start of the first world war, it is of interest to observe that admissions have never since been on the scale established in the early years of this century—the total for the fiscal year ending with March 1913, the all-time peak, was 382,841. Migration at such high levels terminated with the close of that phase of Canada's history which had seen the final expansion of settlement.

Housing Problems and Policies in Latin America

Housing remains a major problem in the Latin-American countries although important measures have been taken, particularly since the second world war, to improve housing conditions. This article surveys the progress made in the various countries of the region during recent years and concludes with an outline of the elements involved in a solution of the problem. Most references in this paper, unless otherwise noted, are drawn from the monthly reports of the I.L.O. correspondents in Latin-American countries. The problems it discusses are among those which are likely to be discussed at the Fifth Conference of American States Members of the International Labour Organisation, which is to be held in Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) in April 1952.

The Nature of the Problem

THERE is widespread agreement among American States that the need for adequate housing constitutes one of the greatest economic and social problems. Several factors have combined to produce the present problem.

The all-pervasive cause of poor housing in Latin America is the low man-hour productivity of the region and the consequent low level of annual per capita income. In the ten South-American countries for which national income statistics are available, the average per capita income in 1949 was 170 U.S. dollars, which compares with an average income in the United States, Canada, Sweden and the United Kingdom of $1,444, $900, $820 and $775 respectively.[1] At such levels, the bulk of the income has to be used to supply the essentials

[1] United Nations: *Volume and Distribution of National Income in Under-Developed Countries* (New York, 1951), p. 15.

of life. It is not surprising, therefore, that the region as a whole has not been able to achieve satisfactory standards of housing. In Latin America generally, only the upper and middle income classes can afford to pay for adequate housing without some assistance from employers or governments.

The rate of population growth is a second basic factor impeding efforts to overcome the housing shortage. The average rate of increase during the period 1920-1947 was about 1.8 per cent. per year, which is the highest rate of increase in any of the major regions of the world.[1] Such a rapid rate of increase means not only that there are a large number of additional people to house each year, but that an ever greater amount of resources must be devoted to the production of food and clothing, rather than to increasing the supply of housing and other essential facilities.

Thirdly, during the twentieth century, particularly since the first world war, there has been a rapid and large-scale movement of population from the country to the cities, with resulting overcrowding and poorly built, insanitary slums. This movement has been due to a number of factors, including natural population increase, lack of employment opportunities in rural areas, the development of resources concentrated in particular areas (such as tin in Bolivia, copper and nitrates in Chile and oil in Venezuela) and the normal attraction of large cities. In addition, as a result of the limited development of roads and railways, there has been a tendency for immigrants to settle in the cities, most of which are on waterways, rather than to move into the hinterland.

In the fourth place, there has been an acute shortage of building materials and equipment. During the war there was a large postponement of normal peacetime building because of the unavailability of certain building materials, such as steel. Since the war demand for cement has greatly exceeded supply (in the early post-war period, for example, the cement production capacity in Latin America was approximately 0.43 kg. per capita, while the consumption rate was 15 kg. per capita).[2] The shortage of cement, steel, timber and house-

[1] UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA: *Economic Survey of Latin America, 1948* (Lake Success, 1949), pp. 146-7.

[2] Francis VIOLICH: *Low-Cost Housing in Latin America* (Washington, D.C., Pan American Union, 1949), p. 8.

building equipment has, therefore, made most South-American countries very dependent on imports of building materials and equipment. This in turn has increased housing costs.

An additional aggravating factor of a local character in some Latin-American countries has been the occurrence of natural catastrophes. Earthquakes have levelled entire towns in Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru, while Cuba, the Dominican Republic and other Caribbean countries have experienced destructive hurricanes.

There are, as yet, no comprehensive data available on the nature and extent of the housing need in Latin America. In the near future, however, the census of the Americas, taken in 1950, may be expected to reveal many essential housing facts, since Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay, Peru, Venezuela and Uruguay used detailed housing questionnaires, and Haiti, Mexico and Panama included housing questions in their population schedules. Meanwhile, the Pan American Union has estimated that approximately 25 million slum or sub-standard dwellings need to be replaced in Latin America.[1] Such a tremendous need cannot under any conditions be met at once, but through the combined efforts of workers, employers and governments, and through the use of new techniques, much can be done to relieve the worst of the pressures resulting from poor and inadequate housing. With this in view, workers, employers and governments in Latin America have undertaken a variety of programmes.

The Framework of Housing Policy—Town and Country Planning

Town and country planning are essential to ensure the efficient location of communication, transport, industrial and residential facilities and the development of an urban civilisation along healthy and productive lines. Since the first world war there has been an increasing tendency in Latin America to apply the principles of town and country planning

[1] Francis Violich, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

to public and private construction and to integrate housing projects into a planning programme.[1]

One of the most interesting examples of recent, comprehensive, long-range, regional planning was the indirect result of a severe earthquake that badly damaged building structures in three rich provinces of Ecuador in August 1949. The first step was the creation of a regional construction board in each province. Expert engineers and architects were employed to draw up regional plans which would minimise the risk of destruction from future earthquakes; geologists were employed to select new sites for the destroyed communities; and new construction methods were used in the rebuilding which, it is estimated, would have prevented 75 per cent. of the earthquake casualties and damage.[2]

Among some of the other notable examples of progressive town planning may be mentioned the following: the reconstruction plan for San Juan (Argentina) to repair the damage caused by an earthquake in 1944, which destroyed practically the entire city; the construction of a modern port town in Colombia to replace Tumaco, which was almost completely burned down in 1947; the rebuilding by the British Colonial Development Corporation of Castries, the capital of St. Lucia (Windward Islands), which was almost completely destroyed by fire in June 1948 [3]; and the city planning of La Paz (Bolivia) which includes the diversion underground of a river and the building of a new boulevard on the former river-bed. City planning involving housing developments has also been undertaken in several other countries, including Brazil, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela.

Building by Workers

The traditional house of rural Latin America is of a primitive character, constructed with local materials (such as clay

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ee, for example, Pan American Union: *Reglamento de Lotificación* (Washington, D.C., 1950); Anatole A. Solow: *Proyecto para el Desarrollo Urbano de la Capital de Costa Rica* (Washington, D.C., Pan American Union, 1949); William H. Ludlow: *La Zonificación en Puerto Rico* (San Juan, Puerto Rico Planning, Urbanizing and Zoning Board, 1946).

[2] Anatole A. Solow: "Planning and Reconstruction after Disaster", in *American City* (New York), September 1950.

[3] *Ibid.*

and thatch) and without sanitary arrangements. Houses are constructed by the future occupant, often with the assistance of members of his immediate community. In the more complex and costly types of urban construction, workers' efforts have been organised largely through co-operatives, a means of obtaining dwellings for low-income groups which is becoming popular in many countries throughout the world.

Housebuilding is frequently undertaken by non-specialised co-operatives—particularly consumer co-operatives—as part of their normal functions. Thus in Colombia 253 of the 427 registered co-operatives functioning at the end of 1950 provided housing services to their members, and in Argentina the consumer co-operative of Buenos Aires, *El Hogar Obrero*, has included the provision of housing credit among its activities for over 45 years. The latter co-operative has built several hundred individual houses for its members as well as eight apartment buildings, of which the latest contains nearly 300 units.

Within recent years, however, there has been an increase in the formation of specialised co-operatives for low-cost housing. Housing co-operatives have played a minor, but nevertheless active, role in the housing movement in Chile, where 18 associations are at work. In Colombia there are 28 co-operatives devoted exclusively to housing activities; these have built 1,500 urban dwellings during the last four years at a cost of 18 million pesos, and one co-operative is at present undertaking a project of 700 houses in a planned community near Medellín. These activities are encouraged by the Colombian Land Credit Institute, which is required by law to assign not less than 20 per cent. of its available funds to housing co-operatives.

In Costa Rica, the Low-Cost Housing Co-operative created by national decree in 1942 and financed by a special tax on motion-picture and other theatres in the capital has undertaken to make housing available to workers earning under 250 colones a month. In Cuba workers' housing co-operatives have built about 150 units in Havana and have undertaken projects in other areas, especially the tobacco districts. In Puerto Rico, despite difficulties in raising capital and other obstacles, three housing co-operatives have recently been formed; and in El Salvador the rural credit co-operative

organisation and a mortgage bank have together formed a corporation, *Mejoramiento Social S.A.*, to buy and subdivide land and to build low-cost houses.

Labour unions have not generally entered the field of housebuilding, but in some countries they have taken an active part in the discussion of the problem and the promotion of measures to solve it. In 1950 the Workingmen's Bank of Venezuela started a co-operative housing project at a cost of some three million bolivars to provide 1,000 flats for lower-income families.

Provision of Housing by Employers

Owing however to the low level of income of the average Latin-American worker, the ability of workers to provide their own housing is very limited. In a number of countries, particularly in certain industries where undertakings have considerable financial resources, housing accommodation is made available by certain employers in accordance with local tradition, collective agreement or statutory obligation.

In some cases provision of housing by employers is facilitated by fiscal measures. In Colombia, enterprises with a specified capital and payroll have been authorised to make deductions in their tax returns for sums spent on housing for employees; housing expenditure in excess of the allowable deduction for any one year may be carried over in succeeding years. It is estimated that such enterprises are spending about 2.5 million pesos annually for workers' housing. In an effort to encourage employer housing for workers, El Salvador has passed a law providing for tax exemption for workers' housing projects and abolishing import duties on materials for such construction.

Oil companies in several Latin-American countries have undertaken extensive housing development.[1] The petroleum industry in Venezuela is obliged by law and various collective agreements to furnish houses to workers in permanent working centres. By 1947 over 8,000 individual houses, blocks of flats

[1] See International Labour Organisation, Petroleum Committee, Third Session (Geneva, 1950), Report II: *Social Conditions in the Petroleum Industry* (Geneva, I.L.O., 1950), ch. II.

and bachelor units had been constructed by oil companies throughout the country. Houses are built according to minimum requirements established by the Ministry of Health and Social Assistance. In Mexico and Colombia, collective agreements in the petroleum industry also contain housing provisions.

In Peru more than 4,000 family-type houses and approximately 700 bachelor type quarters have been built by oil companies. The International Petroleum Company is constructing a new town in Talara, the houses being of a modern type with reinforced concrete frame and brick curtain walls. In Cuba, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua and British Guiana [1], which are characterised by large plantation systems of cultivation, many plantations provide housing for resident workers.

Employer housing activities have also been fairly important in Uruguay. The Central Railroad of Uruguay and employers in paper and weaving mills and packing plants have undertaken substantial housing developments for their workers. In Bolivia, the cement company of Viacha and several of the mining companies have completed housing projects for their employees, while the Coal and Industry Company of Lota (Chile) has invested 280 million pesos in housing for its workers.

Government Action

Although employers in a number of countries have contributed in many ways to the solution of the housing problem, they cannot be expected to provide all workers with adequate housing. The financial resources of many employers, particularly the small employer, are very limited; moreover, there is a large number of self-employed workers who will never be covered by any employer's housing scheme. These facts have led to the general recognition that the Government should be primarily responsible for ensuring that the country has a public and private housing programme that will eventually provide every family with adequate housing.

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[1] Cf. G. Giglioli: *The Population and Housing Problem on the Sugar Estates of British Guiana* (Argosy Company, Bel Air, East Demerara); Colonial Office: *Report of a Commission of Enquiry into the Sugar Industry of British Guiana* (London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1949), ch. XVI.

Three Latin-American countries in fact have constitutional provisions with respect to government responsibility for housing. The Nicaraguan Constitution states that the Government shall encourage low-cost hygienic housing for workers. The new Panama Constitution of 1946 provides that the State shall promote the construction of low-cost housing for workers, while the Cuban Constitution requires the Government to encourage and develop low-cost housing.

Governments in Latin America have attacked the housing problem in a variety of ways—by assisting in the financing of private housing, by promoting public housing programmes, by providing for the financing of housing with social security funds, by the utilisation of prison labour, by aided self-help housing schemes, and by programmes for increasing the production of building materials and for the development of new materials from local resources. In addition, technical assistance programmes of international organisations and governments outside the region are making an increasingly important contribution to the solution of the housing problem.

The Financing of Private Housing

In Latin America generally, private firms constitute the major part of the housebuilding industry. As in most other regions of the world, mortgage finance banks have been established in a number of countries to assist in the financing of private housing. In Colombia the Land Credit Institute, founded in 1939 with a capital of 3.5 million pesos, has played an important role in promoting the construction of low and medium cost dwellings. This Institute is authorised to lend up to 4,000 pesos at 2 per cent. interest to low-income farmers whose net assets do not exceed 10,000 pesos, a maximum of 8,000 pesos to well-to-do farmers whose net assets range from 10,000 to 30,000 pesos, and larger amounts to hacienda owners whose net assets exceed 30,000 pesos, for housing of employees. For urban housing, the Institute may make loans to employees and workers whose net worth is less than 30,000 pesos.

In Mexico, a National Urban Mortgage Bank has been established with an authorised capital of 60 million pesos, a part of which is used for housing. In his 1950 message the President of the Republic stated that the Bank had financed

the building of 2,133 low-rental houses, of which 1,446 were already completed; in addition various savings and loan institutions had lent 15 million pesos during the preceding year for low-cost housing.

In Nicaragua the Mortgage Bank has been authorised to invest up to 300,000 cordobas in housing for families of limited economic means; loans are permitted up to 80 per cent. of the value of the house and for a maximum amount of 3,000 cordobas. The Guatemalan Government has made 500,000 quetzales available for low-cost housing for middle-income workers through the National Mortgage Credit Bank.

The Government of Panama has created an Urban Construction Bank with a capital of $4 million to finance low-cost housing. The Bank is authorised to lend to persons with small incomes; these loans must not exceed 90 per cent. of the value of the building, or 7,500 balboas, and must be repaid in 20 years. The Housing Department of the Costa Rican Social Insurance Fund has been empowered to make loans to private individuals who own a building site but are without a home.

In Puerto Rico, the United States Federal Housing Administration has assisted in financing a large amount of medium-cost housing. In 1951, arrangements were completed for a series of projects costing $33 million, one project being reported as the largest detached-dwelling project in the world, covering an area of 450 acres and composed of 4,426 detached dwellings designed to serve the needs of San Juan families with incomes ranging from $1,200 to $3,000 per annum.[1]

In September 1950 the President of Guatemala approved regulations of the Institute for the Development of Production regarding loans to finance housing for low-income families. Loans may not exceed 5,000 quetzales or last more than 10 years, and are restricted to dwellings with rents below 250 quetzales a month. In Venezuela, a Workingmen's Bank was established in 1927 with a capital of six million bolivares to assist private construction of workers' housing. The Bank has financed almost 2,000 dwelling units chiefly for middle-income families. During 1949 the National Mortgage Bank

[1] Ralph L. GWATKIN: "Financing Medium and Low-Cost Housing in Puerto Rico", in the *Monthly Information Bulletin* of the Caribbean Commission, October 1951, pp. 81-6.

in Argentina made loans totalling over a million pesos, which facilitated the building of 40,000 dwellings and the purchase of 36,975 lots for the development of housing.

The Brazilian Government created a Popular Housing Foundation in 1946 to make loans for the construction or purchase of moderately priced homes. The Foundation has a capital of 2,000 million cruzeiros; preference is given to rural families employed in the production of essential foodstuffs. By 1949 the Foundation had built 3,000 new houses in the region of Rio de Janeiro, while in the country as a whole the number exceeded 8,000. The amount borrowed must not be greater than the individual can repay over a 15-year period without absorbing more than 25 per cent. of his income; only one house can be purchased or built for any one individual; and all payments are suspended during a period of unemployment or unavoidable loss of income. In 1947 it was estimated that, partly as a result of this policy, approximately 75 per cent. of the people in the three principal cities owned their homes.

In Peru, a Housing Corporation was created in 1946 to provide (among other things) financial assistance to private builders and semi-public groups for low-cost housing developments. In Uruguay the Mortgage Bank, established in 1900 to assist in the completion of several projects which had been begun in 1887, is designed to assist in the financing of private housing. In Chile, public credit for private housing has been an accepted policy since 1906, when the Government started making individual loans up to 75 per cent. of the value of the dwelling.

The principle of mortgage banking to assist in the financing of private housing has, therefore, become fairly well established in Latin America and has made an important contribution to the construction of housing, particularly for middle-income groups.

Public Housing Programmes

Most Latin-American governments have recognised that, regardless of what may be done to assist privately financed building, the average per capita income is such that a great many families cannot hope to obtain adequate housing without the financial assistance of the State. As a result many

governments have undertaken public housing programmes to alleviate the serious housing shortage.

Uruguay has established a National Housing Institute to construct low-cost dwellings for rental or sale and to supply related community facilities such as clinics, recreation buildings and public laundries. The Institute serves employees with salaries of not more than 100 pesos a month; the cost of these dwellings must not exceed 4,000 pesos; interest is set at 3 per cent.; and amortisation extends over a 30-year period. In the fall of 1951 the Institute presented a detailed programme providing for the construction of 117,000 houses at a cost of 1,180 million pesos over the next 25 years.

In Costa Rica, a Housing Department has been established as a part of the Social Insurance Fund with powers to encourage, promote, finance and construct low-cost housing by various means. The Department has completed a large community project in San José, the capital, as well as a small project of 20 dwellings in Heredia.

The Chilean housing agency, the Workers' Housing Fund, places emphasis on direct public housing rather than on loans to individuals. The Fund is governed by a Council representing a wide range of national interests and is financed by a variety of methods. The national budget provides a certain amount of working capital; in addition, industrial and mining companies earning more than 50,000 pesos a year are required to invest 5 per cent. of their annual profits in the Fund. Private companies, however, have the alternative of investing their profit directly in workers' housing. The national law also requires municipalities to set aside 5 per cent. of their liquid assets for the construction of houses for wage earners and salaried employees. During 1949 the Workers' Housing Fund was responsible for the construction of 2,700 buildings, costing 360 million pesos and capable of housing 14,450 persons. Another 4,859 houses were under construction in 1950.

In 1947 the Chilean Government established an Emergency Housing Foundation to alleviate the most acute housing needs by providing a semi-permanent type of construction. Financed mainly by two special appropriations of 45 million pesos, the Foundation has completed a number of housing projects, including as a rather special feature various social services. The Chilean Government also appointed a Housing

Committee, which has presented a broad programme proposing that 18,000 to 20,000 houses should be built each year with the financial help of the Social Insurance Fund and private funds in order to alleviate the critical housing situation.

In Paraguay, there is a National Housing Council of five members, with responsibility for the control and development of housing. The Council has financial resources of its own and may in addition issue bonds up to 100 million pesos for housing construction. A special housing programme has also been undertaken for public employees under the auspices of the Institute of Social Welfare.

Colombia has engaged in public housing under three major programmes.[1] The Land Credit Institute may build rural dwellings for rental to farm labourers who are not landowners, the annual rent not to exceed 3 per cent. of the investment cost plus 1 per cent. for maintenance. It may also construct large blocks of flats to sell or rent to workers or middle-class families. Endowed with a capital of 3.5 million pesos in 1939, additional resources for the Institute were provided in 1946 by a law which required certain categories of taxpayers to invest 5 per cent. of their incomes above 10,000 pesos a year in its securities; recently, however, it was decided that the Institute could retain only one-half of this 5 per cent. In June 1949 the balance-sheet of the Institute showed investments of 33 million pesos. It is estimated that approximately 10,000 houses have been built by means of the Institute's loans and investments, principally for middle-income farmers and workers.

A second programme has been launched by the Colombian Government through the Rural Hygiene Campaign organised by the Coffee Federation in 1942. The Federation obtains its revenue from a 0.6 per cent. export tax on coffee, which is paid half in money and half in coffee, the latter being then sold on the market. Funds are used for new housing, improving sanitation in existing houses and fumigation with D.D.T., and are distributed according to the level of coffee production in the various territorial departments over the last three-year period.

[1] INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT: *The Basis of a Development Program for Colombia* (Washington D.C., 1950), ch. XI.

Thirdly, municipalities in Colombia having tax receipts of 25,000 pesos a year and over are required by law to devote a percentage of their revenue to home construction. Those having from 25,000 to 50,000 pesos must set aside 3 per cent.; those having from 50,000 pesos to 100,000 must earmark 4 per cent.; those having over 100,000 pesos must spend 5 per cent. on housing.

On the basis of the report of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development [1] the Colombian Committee for Economic Development has recommended that the Government should undertake a five-year low-cost housing programme costing 800 million pesos, to provide 102,000 urban dwelling units and 90,000 rural dwelling units. Although it recognises that such a programme will not fully meet the accumulated housing need, the Committee does not believe that the Government can do more with the resources available.

In Bolivia, the Workers' Housing Fund has launched a nation-wide housing programme. Two projects of over 100 dwelling units have been completed in La Paz, and other housing projects have been carried out in smaller cities. The Argentine Government has created a National Housing Administration with broad authority to construct low-cost housing for urban and rural workers.

Peru has created an independent public body, the Housing Corporation, to carry out a 50-year housing programme for the entire country. The law provides for the gradual elimination of sub-standard housing through replacement by direct public construction and through loans to private builders and public groups. The initial working capital of the Corporation has been set at 100 million soles.

In Guatemala, the public housing problem has been dealt with in two ways. The Ministry of Transport and Public Works has constructed a number of houses in the Workers' Colony for the National Mortgage Credit Bank, and the Guatemalan Development Corporation started construction at the end of 1949 under a countrywide plan of low-cost housing. In 1950, 600 model homes were being built near the capital to house the families who had suffered most seriously from the storm in October 1949. The Government has also created a Rural

[1] *The Basis of a Development Program for Colombia, op. cit.*

Housing Section in the Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare, but no rural building programme has as yet been undertaken.

The Cuban Government launched an attack on its housing problem in September 1950 by establishing a National Housing Commission with the object of encouraging the construction of low-cost dwellings. In Mexico, the President of the Republic took an important step in May 1951 by issuing 100 million pesos of national savings bonds for the construction of workers' dwellings.

In Venezuela, the Workingmen's Bank has received an appropriation of 200 million bolivares from the Government and work started in 1951 on the construction of 12,185 low-cost housing units. The project is to be completed in four years at an estimated cost of 50 million bolivares a year. In May 1950 the Governor of British Guiana announced that the United Kingdom was contributing one million U.S. dollars for urban housing and $650,000 for rural housing, including housing on sugar estates.

In December 1950 the Social Welfare Institute in El Salvador was reconstituted as an institute for the promotion of urban housing for low-income families. It takes over the capital of the former Institute, and this will in future be increased by government grant.[1]

Governments in the Caribbean region have undertaken a number of noteworthy public housing programmes in recent years. In Haiti the Government inaugurated a programme in January 1951, which provides for the construction of 15 working-class housing estates in different parts of the country. The United Kingdom has provided a grant of £45,000 for the repair of 2,452 houses damaged in two hurricanes which struck Antigua in August 1950 ; repairs have now been completed and further action to rebuild the 1,400 houses which were completely destroyed is now in process of formulation.[2] In Jamaica £117,923 has been obtained from the Agricultural Loan Societies Board to finance a rehabilitation programme, and the Government has granted subsidies of £51,000 to compensate

[1] *Revista de Economía de El Salvador*, January-December 1950, pp. 155-63; see also PAN AMERICAN UNION : *La Vivienda en El Salvador* (Washington D.C., 1950).

[2] *Monthly Information Bulletin* of the Caribbean Commission, April 1951, pp. 726-7.

for the high cost of construction, providing the cost of each house does not exceed £200. An emergency housing programme has been started in Western Kingston. Legislation has been passed in the Leeward Islands for the control of new housing sites, land has been acquired and surveyed for redevelopment of the worst urban slum areas and housing projects are planned. The Government has purchased about 4,000 acres of land in St. Vincent for settlement purposes and the construction of three model villages is well under way. In Trinidad and Tobago, 1,409 dwelling units in six housing settlements and 144 apartments in slum areas have been completed since the war.

In the Dominican Republic the Government has for a number of years been repairing the destruction caused by the hurricane of 1930. The buildings hastily put up in the capital, Ciudad Trujillo, are gradually being replaced, the Santo Domingo District Council having appropriated 70,000 pesos for the construction of a new workers' housing project. About 300 houses have been built by the Government for sale at 2,300, 1,400 and 650 pesos, with payments extending over a ten-year period. The Government has announced its intention of building 25,000 additional dwellings.

Other Methods of Finance

In some Latin-American countries, social security funds have been used to help finance special institutions for low-cost housing, while in other cases social security agencies have engaged directly in house construction.

Perhaps the most extensive social security housing programmes are to be found in Brazil, where since 1931 six pension funds have invested large sums of money in housing for their contributing members. The Industrial Workers' Retirement and Survivors' Pensions Institute has undertaken the largest programme, its biggest project being a community of 2,300 dwelling units including a shopping centre, kindergarten, theatre, club house and school for 3,000 children. The number of low-cost houses constructed by social security institutions rose from 12,000 in the period 1934-45 to 48,000 between 1945 and June 1950. In 1951 the Industrial Workers' Institute announced its decision to finance the construction of 25,000 additional flats for the benefit of its members.

In Uruguay, social security funds were first used for housing in 1921. In the case of homes financed by the Retirement Pensions Fund the title passes to survivors in the case of death of the head of the family. The Mortgage Bank, the Bank of the Republic and the Retirement Pensions Fund have also been authorised to make joint loans to building companies undertaking low-cost housing construction. Loans are permitted up to 85 per cent. of the total cost, on condition that the dwellings do not cost more than 7,500 pesos and that they are built in planned communities of the garden-city type with lots not less than 250 square metres in area.

Argentine legislation permits the National Retirement and Survivors' Pensions Fund for Railroad Employees to lend up to 40 per cent. of its reserves for house construction. Loans are limited to 2,000 pesos and houses may not be sold without the consent of the board of directors of the Fund. The National Social Provident Institute has also been authorised to extend mortgage loans to persons who are participants in the Fund; these loans carry a very low rate of interest and are amortised over a long period.

In Panama the Social Insurance Fund provided the Urban Construction Bank with a large part of its capital of $4 million in 1944, and in addition the Fund has carried on its own building programme now totalling approximately 500 dwelling units. The Fund may also make loans up to a maximum of 15,000 balboas to contributing members for the purchase, construction or repair of houses, payments on such housing loans being adjusted to a predetermined scale based upon the age of the applicant.

In Chile a Decree of 1945 required the various provident funds to invest 25 per cent. of their annual budgets in low-cost housing. Such investment may be made through the Popular Housing Fund established in 1943 or it may be done by making individual loans to non-profit societies. During the last ten years in Costa Rica, the Social Insurance Fund has constructed or bought 372 workers' homes valued at 7.5 million colones; 1.5 million colones were spent on low-rent house construction in 1951, and it was expected that another 1.5 million colones would be set aside in the budget of the Institute for 1952.

In Mexico, the Government Retirement Fund and the various social insurance funds constitute one of the major

sources of capital for the Housing Development Bank which the Government has created to attack the housing problem. In the summer of 1950 the Civil Pensions Directorate completed the President Alemán Urban Centre, a development project costing $2,400,000 (U.S.), covering ten acres in Mexico City and containing 1,080 flats in six 13-storey and six three-storey buildings.[1] In September 1950 the various Mexican insurance undertakings announced further plans to spend 50 million pesos for the construction of 2,700 houses to help relieve the acute housing shortage. In Bolivia the Social Security Institute has been empowered to make housing loans to its members ; in Ecuador, pension funds may grant mortgage loans to their participants ; in Cuba, the Sugar Industry Retirement Fund is authorised to sell houses to members at cost price.

A contribution to the solution of the housing problem in Costa Rica is being made through the prefabrication of dwelling units by prison labour. A simplified housing design has been selected and work is done by prisoners on a voluntary basis under the supervision of engineers and foremen of the Housing Department. Houses are produced at the rate of two a day and transported in sections to the site where they are erected by trained crews—also prisoners. The Housing Department pays a small wage to each labourer, which is divided into three equal amounts, one being given to his family, one being used for the improvement of his diet and one being given as pocket money. For each four days of work the prisoner's sentence is reduced by one day ; at the end of his sentence he has been trained as a skilled building worker, thus adding to the country's supply of skilled manpower. The cost of a two-family house produced in this way was about $1,400 (U.S.) including land and improvements in 1950.[2]

" Aided Self-Help Housing "

In an effort to cope with the threefold problem of high building costs, the shortage of imported building materials and limited finances, several governments have developed an effect-

[1] Anatole A. Solow : " Largest Housing Project in Mexico ", in *American City* (New York), November 1950.

[2] *Vivienda y Planificación* (Pan American Union), March 1950, pp. 24-5.

ive method known as " aided self-help housing ".[1] The most extensive experience with this technique is to be found in Puerto Rico, where over 20,000 families have already been resettled in 165 rural communities and a lesser number of families have been resettled in urban communities.

To relieve urban housing pressures, the Puerto Rican Housing Authority acquires suburban land, installs sanitary facilities and roads, leases adequate plots to low-income urban and suburban families and helps them to move or make little shacks on the plots for temporary use. Then, with the assistance of the Housing Authority, the families undertake to improve these shacks or to replace them by better houses. Various methods are used, but all involve the principle of aided self-help. The rural aided self-help housing programme, under the direction of the Social Programmes Administration, provides unskilled landless peasants and farm labourers with plots on perpetual lease where garden crops can be grown, moves their shacks to the plots and helps to organise an improvement co-operative for the settlers. With technical assistance and small loans for machinery, the co-operative then brings in the water supply and builds latrines, produces building blocks and constructs new houses for the settlers. The finished houses of 30 square metres of area with three rooms can be built at a cost of only $300 (U.S.) per house (1950 figure).[2]

To organise a community on a self-help basis, a group of from 12 to 15 families is formed. Study and discussion meetings are held in order to develop an understanding of the programme and create a proper attitude, both of which are essential for the continuous and strenuous effort required in a housing project. The settlers are then organised in smaller

[1] Jacob L. CRANE and Robert E. MCCABE : " Programmes in Aid of Family Housebuilding : 'Aided Self-Help Housing' ", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. LXI, No. 4, April 1950, pp. 367-74. See also paper prepared by Jacob L. Crane for the Fourth West Indian Conference (1950) : " Improvement of Shelter and Home Environment ".

[2] Luis RIVERA-SANTOS : " A New Approach to Low-Cost Rural Housing in Puerto Rico ", in *Monthly Information Bulletin* of the Caribbean Commission, July 1950, pp. 422-4 ; UNITED STATES HOUSING AND HOME FINANCE AGENCY : *Aided Self-help Shelter Improvement in Tropical Puerto Rico* (Washington, 1950) and *Administration and Costs of Aided Self-help Shelter Improvement Projects in Puerto Rico* (Washington, 1950) ; PUERTO RICO PLANNING BOARD : *Housing in Puerto Rico* (Santurce, 1950). See also Jacob L. CRANE : " Workers' Housing in Puerto Rico ", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIX, No. 6, June 1944, pp. 608-9.

groups so as to have a minimum of three men working on the project daily ; everyone is occupied on the project on Sundays.

The first step in actual construction consists in building a shed where a simple and easily operated concrete block-mixing machine is installed, and where cement and other construction materials can be stored. Next, the heads of the families themselves start to produce concrete blocks under a minimum of government supervision. After all the blocks required for the project are made, reinforced concrete foundations are built with the assistance of a concrete-mixing machine. Experience in Puerto Rico has proved that if proper methods and techniques are used the wholehearted co-operation and interest of unskilled farm labourers and their families can be obtained and maintained throughout the time necessary to complete the project. Though their efficiency may be low, there is enough ability to develop rapidly the necessary skills.

Jamaica Welfare Ltd. has engaged in a successful self-help scheme under which 23 houses were built at an average cost of £160. The Jamaican Central Housing Authority helped to draw up estimates and specifications and a local officer of the Authority visited the houses during construction. As these houses were built under the Hurricane Rehabilitation Plan, one-third of the cost was financed by a government grant, the balance being made available on a 20-year loan at 2 ½ per cent. A materials pool was created to make bulk purchases of supplies. Members of the self-help enterprise were given preliminary training in housebuilding six months before work started, so that the work could progress unimpeded once it had begun. The householders were then organised into building groups of six, working in turn on the members' houses an average of three days each week except when this was impossible because of agricultural tasks. The owners' labour was credited to them (less deductions made for a daily meal) at government rates of pay. Six master carpenters were given contracts for the project and eleven assistants were used in building the kitchens and latrines. The materials contributed by the householders amounted to nearly one-third of the materials purchased, while the labour contributed was equal to more than one-third of the paid labour.[1]

[1] UNITED NATIONS : *Survey of Problems of Low-Cost Rural Housing in Tropical Areas* (Lake Success, 1950), pp. 42-6.

A third interesting aided self-help housing project has been undertaken on the island of St. Vincent, where almost an entire village of 1,000 inhabitants was moved at a cost to the Government of only £2,400.[1] The success of this scheme was attributed to four principal features. The Government provided freehold house sites. Building materials were made available to prospective house-owners in limited amounts at cost price, subject to repayment by monthly instalments over a period of years. Installation of a latrine unit, provided at cost price subject to monthly repayments, was compulsory. An adequate water supply with additional amenities such as a bathhouse and laundry site was installed. In this scheme each man, with the assistance of friends, moved his house from an unsuitable site at the foot of a volcano to a well-planned village on some 40 acres of fairly level ground.

In Trinidad, the Planning and Housing Commission is sponsoring a village housing settlement scheme on land given by the sugar estates. Applications were invited for the lease of approximately 234 lots varying in size from 5,000 to 18,700 square feet. Of the 86 buildings erected or in the course of erection in 1950, 19 were of concrete or brick (costing from $600 to $1,200 or more), 52 were of tapia (costing from $300 to $500), and 15 were of cheap materials (costing about $100). A great deal of communal labour is employed on Sundays. Five or six men get together and cast all the pillars for one house; on the following Sunday they do the same for another house, and so on.[2]

A recent mission of experts which visited Antigua to investigate the rehousing problem after two hurricanes in 1950 has strongly recommended that the Government should undertake an aided self-help programme for the rebuilding of 1,400 houses that were completely destroyed.[3] A British West Indies Housing Conference held in Barbados in June 1951 concluded that aided self-help schemes represent

[1] "Housing in Saint Vincent", in *Corona* (London), February 1950, pp. 72-3.

[2] *Monthly Information Bulletin* of the Caribbean Commission, October 1950, p. 511. Cf. *Report of the Planning and Housing Commission for the Year 1949* (Trinidad and Tobago, Government Printer, 1951).

[3] *Monthly Information Bulletin* of the Caribbean Commission, September 1951, p. 41.

the most economical method of providing housing for poor people, and recommended that the increased use of such schemes and their introduction into territories where they have not yet been tried out should be urgently considered by governments.[1]

The Problem of Building Materials

One of the most serious obstacles confronting most Latin-American countries has been the shortage of domestic building materials. The resulting dependence on large imports of building materials with high costs for freight rates, landing charges and customs duties has offset to a great extent the lowness of wage rates in the construction industry and has helped to keep housing costs out of reach of low-income families.

Detailed figures for the production and import of building materials in the Latin-American countries are not generally available except for cement production; these, however, give some indication of the level of activity in housing and construction.

Cement production in all Latin-American countries for which data are available[2] has increased substantially above pre-war levels. Progress is most outstanding in Venezuela and Puerto Rico, where the monthly production in 1951 was 14 and 11 times, respectively, as high as in 1939. Production in Ecuador and Guatemala was, respectively, 5 and 6 times the pre-war level, while marked increases have also been registered in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico.

A number of investigations and experiments are being conducted with a view to developing improved and lower-cost building materials. In Barbados houses have been built using panels of sugar cane waste *(bagasse)* encased in concrete—a form of construction which has already been used with some success in Indonesia. The use of *bagasse* for making wallboard is also being examined in several Latin-American countries. The possibilities of developing a cheap hand or power-driven concrete block-making press such as has been used with

[1] *Monthly Information Bulletin* of the Caribbean Commission, September 1951, p. 38.

[2] See United Nations, *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, July 1951, pp. 67-70.

advantage in recent low-cost housing projects in Africa are under consideration in several countries. Exploratory work is also under way with a view to developing the large timber resources in some of the Latin-American countries.[1]

Technical Assistance

One of the most important post-war developments affecting workers' housing, particularly in the underdeveloped countries, has been the establishment of various technical assistance programmes. These have been designed to assist governments to help themselves by making available experts and technicians and by providing host facilities for fellowships and training programmes. In this way, governments can obtain assistance concerning those aspects of the housing problem which present particular difficulties.

Three major technical assistance programmes are at present in operation in the Latin-American region: the expanded programme of technical assistance of the United Nations and specialised agencies, the Pan American Union technical assistance programme and the Point Four programme of the Technical Co-operation Administration of the United States Government; these programmes are being carried out with close co-operation between the respective authorities.

Acting on the basis of resolutions adopted by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly in 1949, the United Nations and five specialised agencies (the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organisation, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, the International Civil Aviation Organisation and the World Health Organisation) have established a fund for an expanded programme of technical assistance to underdeveloped areas.[2] Several housing projects are already under way or are in the planning stages under this expanded programme.

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[1] For a review of building material problems and prospects, see United Nations: *Survey of Problems of Low-Cost Rural Housing in Tropical Areas*, *op. cit.*, ch. 2.

[2] See Technical Assistance Board: *The Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance for Economic Development of Underdeveloped Countries* (New York, 1951).

The United Nations has sent a housing expert to Brazil for three months to study and make recommendations on rural housing, and another expert to El Salvador to assist the Government in the reconstruction of housing in towns damaged or destroyed during the recent earthquake. The United Nations has also received requests from Brazil, Chile and Uruguay for the grant of fellowships in the field of building, housing, and town and country planning, and a request from Paraguay for expert advice on the economic aspects of low-cost housing. In addition, the United Nations provides a number of services in the field of housing with special interest to the less developed countries, including a reference centre on housing and town and country planning which collects, analyses and indexes reference material and prepares bibliographies and abstracts for dissemination, a catalogue of films on building, housing and town and country planning, and the publication of various reports now completed or under way, such as a handbook on tropical housing, reports on methods of measuring housing needs, methods of preparing programmes of housing and public construction, methods of financing housing, environmental hygiene and sanitation in rural areas, and technical and economic studies on community development and neighbourhood units with special reference to rural areas.

The principal project of the Pan American Union has been the establishment of an Inter-American Housing Research and Training Centre in Bogotá (Colombia), which was scheduled to start operations in October 1951. The Housing Centre will conduct research on materials and construction methods (with emphasis on local materials, such as native woods, minerals, fibres and plastics), on the planning and design of minimum types of dwellings for urban and rural housing in tropical and other climates, and on the problems of housing management, administration and financing. The Centre will accept trainees and will be prepared to render technical assistance to governmental or non-governmental agencies. So far 14 countries have officially indicated their intention to participate in this regional project.

In Costa Rica, the Pan American Union has assisted in the establishment of a modern city planning office in San José, the capital, which is the first of its kind in Central America. Substantial progress has been made by this office in the prepa-

ration of a master city plan and in obtaining its adoption by the municipal council. In a field study carried out for the Urban Housing Institute of El Salvador, the Pan American Union has recommended systematic procedures for the selection of sites and the planning and design of large-scale housing projects.[1] In Ecuador, it has provided a three-man technical assistance mission to assist in the reconstruction and rehabilitation of the areas devastated by the earthquake in 1949. It has also organised " housing round tables " at three regional seminars on social affairs, which have contributed to the interchange of information and stimulation of housing programmes in the region.

The Point Four programme of the United States Technical Co-operation Administration (T.C.A.) has a wide range of activities under way in the Latin-American region. In response to a request from the Caribbean Commission, the T.C.A. has, with the concurrence of the governments of the United Kingdom, France and the Netherlands, approved a plan for making available the services of two experts in aided self-help housing for a period of two years. This two-man team will assist the local governments in developing pilot projects, testing local building materials, developing on-the-job training programmes and demonstrating how people can build and finance houses for themselves. The project also provides for making available a small amount of demonstration equipment, such as portable block-making machinery, cement-mixers and hand and power tools, to be assigned to the Commission for loan to local governments.

A contract is in effect between the T.C.A. and the Puerto Rico Planning Board to permit Antiguan officials and community leaders to study the aided self-help programme in Puerto Rico, and to obtain the help of Puerto Rico Social Programmes Administration personnel in organising and carrying out a housing reconstruction programme in Antigua. The T.C.A. is also studying a building materials development project in Brazil which, it is hoped, will become a centre for testing and demonstrating methods of producing construction materials from native resources.

[1] Rodrigo MASIS : *Proyectos de Viviendas Económicas para San Salvador* (Washington, D.C., Pan American Union, 1950).

The T.C.A. has received from the Chilean Government a comprehensive request for technical assistance in the rationalisation and standardisation of the manufacture of construction materials, the training of specialised workers and the provision of some machinery for this purpose, the modification of legal requirements and regulations governing public works, the co-ordination of various organisations and elements involved in the housing problem and, finally, a study of the organisation of the internal services of the Chilean Housing Fund. The Government of Ecuador has asked for a housing administrator to continue the administrative, organisational and supervisory work started by the Pan American Union mission in the earthquake area, an engineer-instructor to introduce and develop low-cost construction methods, and a programme analyst to advise local agencies in over-all planning and financial methods. It is expected that the planning and organisational functions being carried out by the Pan American Union three-man housing reconstruction mission in the Ambato earthquake area will end on 1 January 1952 and will be transferred to the Point Four assistance programme.

The Peruvian Government has requested T.C.A. assistance in the fields of building codes, building materials production, low-cost housing, slum clearance and urban redevelopment. Interest has also developed in obtaining the services of town planning experts to assist in the organisation and curriculum of a graduate School of Urbanism, which would be a regional organisation for the benefit of other South-American countries as well as Peru. Point Four technical assistance is being planned in the field of town planning for the Managua area of Nicaragua. The T.C.A. has also received requests from Guatemala, Costa Rica and Colombia for fellowship grants in the field of housing.

Elements in a Solution of the Problem

The housing situation in all Latin-American countries is unquestionably critical. Moreover, it is not a situation which admits of a simple and immediate solution. An increase in the capital stock of a country, of which housing is a major component, can be achieved in three principal ways. First of all, an economy can curtail its consumption, increase its

volume of saving and divert resources from the production of consumers' goods to the production of capital goods. This will be especially difficult in Latin America because the level of income in all countries is so low and the pressure for consumption is so great that the margin for additional saving is relatively small. In many cases, however, methods can be developed to mobilise for more effective use such savings as may be available.

Secondly, capital may be imported from abroad. Imports of capital are, however, usually for undertakings whose operations add to the supply of foreign exchange (by increasing exports) or reduce the need for it (by producing goods which would otherwise have to be imported). Housing is unlikely to contribute substantially to either of these objectives, except where it is an essential part of a large-scale development project.[1]

[1] In this connection, it is interesting to note that the I.L.O. Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee at its second session, in March 1949, invited the Governing Body of the Office to examine the desirability and possibility of establishing, under the control of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, an International Institute for Building Loans, the functions of which would be to collect private savings by the issue of bonds where such savings exist, with a view to making mortgage loans for housing construction, especially for the lower-income groups in countries in which there is a shortage of capital. On the instructions of the Governing Body, the Office consulted the International Bank concerning the proposal. Although the Bank did not feel able to pass final judgment on the proposal solely on the basis of the information given in the resolution, it pointed out that the project involved the utilisation of international financing to meet domestic expenditures. Since the Articles of Agreement permit the Bank to make loans for this type of expenditure only " in exceptional circumstances ", the Bank, as explained in its Fifth Annual Report, makes local currency loans only " *(a)* if the project to be financed is of such economic urgency that the country's ability to undertake foreign borrowing —which is more or less limited in all cases—is better utilised in financing this project than in financing the direct foreign exchange costs of alternative projects ; *(b)* if the local currency costs of the project cannot reasonably be met out of available domestic resources ; and *(c)* if it is apparent that, unless foreign exchange is made available to the borrowing country to be employed for the import of either consumer goods or raw materials, the local currency expenditures involved in the project will lead to inflationary pressures ".

The Bank stated that it did not believe that housing projects usually belonged to the high-priority group of projects covered by this statement. It would be disposed to assist in the financing of the construction of housing only in a case in which housing was a small but essential segment of a high-priority development project in the financing of which the Bank participated, particularly if it could be assumed that the investment was likely to lead in due course to a high level of domestic savings and to additional foreign exchange earnings or foreign exchange savings.

The Bank made it clear, however, that it was not unaware of the important part which housing must play in the sound economic development of all

(Footnote continued overleaf.)

Thirdly, labour and other resources at present unemployed or underemployed may be utilised to increase capital formation without curtailing the level of consumption. To accomplish this without generating inflationary pressures, however, requires a carefully formulated economic policy.

Even if the volume of capital formation can be increased in one of the above ways, the increase cannot all be devoted to housing. Expenditures on housing must be balanced against other urgent economic and social needs, such as factories, industrial equipment, power, and essential public facilities including transport, communications, health and education. It is in fact doubtful whether a marked permanent improvement in the housing situation can be achieved until much more progress is made in the economic development of the region. Housing is an element in the life of a people which depends basically on the productivity of the country, and it is not to be expected that housing in the underdeveloped countries can be brought up to the levels enjoyed in the highly developed countries without commensurate economic development.

Although there exists no quick and easy solution to the housing crisis, it is important that the problem should be tackled with all the energy and imagination available. The situation clearly calls both for immediate action of an emergency character to alleviate the present acute shortage and for long-range programmes to provide adequate housing for the whole population.[1]

An Emergency Programme

The objective of the emergency programme should be to produce in the immediate future as many new houses as possible. Every family that is able to obtain better housing here and now instead of in a decade or two hence represents

countries. It pointed out that its lending operations to finance either foreign exchange or local currency expenditures of high-priority investment projects normally resulted in an increased volume of total investment. In consequence, local resources may be set free which could be devoted to housing development. Thus, its loan operations may indirectly have a beneficial effect upon the volume of housing construction.

[1] For a broad discussion of housing policy see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Housing Policy* (Montreal, 1945) and *Housing and Employment* (Geneva, 1948).

a net social gain. Moreover, if a family can acquire a share of ownership in a new house (no matter how modest) and a small plot of ground for cultivation, it will have a greater incentive to improve its position. Furthermore, the spirit of industry and the habit of saving which find encouragement in such an environment will accelerate the processes of economic development and hasten the time when the economy will be able to provide adequate permanent housing for everyone.

In formulating an emergency programme to cope with the immediate shortage, at least seven major factors need to be considered. The first point of emphasis may well be upon the greatly expanded use of low-cost, locally available materials. Housebuilding is at present dependent to a substantial extent on imported building materials, such as cement, steel and timber, which are currently in short supply and which, moreover, require large amounts of foreign exchange. Increased use of local materials may sometimes involve somewhat inferior and less permanent types of construction, but in the present situation every effort is needed to stretch money and materials to the utmost.

In spite of all that governments may do to increase the domestic supply of building materials, most countries are likely to have to import such materials in considerable volume for some years to come. A second important step would, therefore, be to increase the supplies of such materials available to Latin-American countries in the present tight international market. In this connection, it should be noted that the General Assembly of the United Nations at its Sixth Session asked the Economic and Social Council to request " governments of countries supplying building materials to give some priority to orders connected with the construction of economical housing for low-income groups ".

Thirdly, intensive efforts are required to develop and extend methods of low-cost house construction, especially those methods which effectively utilise the labour of the home-owner. One such method is the aided self-help technique, which would appear to have wide potential applicability in most Latin-American countries, particularly in rural areas. To achieve the maximum results with this technique, it may be necessary in many countries to develop new forms of

community organisation.[1] Another method is through housing co-operatives, which have already been successfully operated in a number of countries, including those of Latin America.[2]

In the fourth place, immediate changes in land tenure systems may be needed to provide an incentive for workers and their families to spend their time, energy and income in improving their housing accommodation. At the same time, steps may be needed to curb land speculation, which places serious obstacles in the way of the extended application of low-cost methods of construction, particularly in the suburbs of large cities.

Fifthly, to rehouse the greatest possible number of families within the next few years, governments, employers and workers may have to be temporarily satisfied with housing standards that are somewhat lower than those towards which Latin-American countries aspire in the long run.

In the sixth place, to ensure that available resources are devoted to essential rather than to luxury housing, governments might consider the adoption of measures to control the use and allocation of scarce building materials.

Finally, the problems of financing will need to be re-examined closely with an emergency programme in mind. New local, regional and national arrangements may be required to utilise fully the potential financial contributions which workers, employers and governments can make. In many cases, only a relatively small amount of financial assistance by the central government in the form of loans or grants may be needed to set in motion local public or private housing projects that might otherwise never get started. In view of the present housing crisis, no project which offers the promise of new houses, however few, can afford to be neglected.

[1] For a discussion of new forms of community organisation that have been developed for this and other purposes in a number of countries see UNITED NATIONS : *Survey of Problems of Low-Cost Rural Housing in Tropical Areas* (Lake Success, 1950), ch. 4 ; D. S. HATCH : *The Rural Center Approach* (Turrialba, Costa Rica, Food and Agriculture Organisation and Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, 1949) ; FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANISATION : *Essentials of Rural Welfare* (Washington, D.C., 1949) and *Social Welfare in Rural Communities* (Washington, D.C., 1949).

[2] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *The Organisation and Administration of Housing and Building Societies* (Geneva, 1949, roneoed) ; also UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS Bulletin No. 858 : *Organization and Management of Cooperative and Mutual Housing Associations* (Washington, D.C., 1946).

A Long-Term Programme

Even while a short-term emergency programme is being drafted and implemented, governments will need to give attention to the long-term solution of the housing problem.[1] One of the most useful steps which can be taken toward such a solution is the establishment of a central agency at a high level within each government to co-ordinate the housing activities of all public and semi-public undertakings. Housing policy is likely to be piecemeal, incomplete and possibly at cross purposes until responsibility is clearly established for the formulation of a comprehensive national programme.

Secondly, town and country planning activities will need to be expanded. Such planning is essential to avoid waste of resources and to safeguard the worth of future investments in public and private facilities and particularly in housing.

One of the most important housing questions concerns the supply of building materials. As previously noted in this article, Latin-American countries have made great progress in increasing their cement-producing capacity during the last decade. Similar steps have also been taken, or are planned, to increase the supply of other building materials, such as brick, tiles and lumber. Many countries, however, have not yet made a systematic examination of the available productive resources or taken action to increase the supply of building materials.

A fourth basic problem is the development of an adequate supply of skilled labour in the housebuilding industry. Governments, employers and workers will need to give close attention to the vocational guidance, vocational training and apprenticeship systems required to achieve this long-term goal.

In the fifth place, there is a need for long-term research on low-cost building materials and methods. Such research

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[1] Reference may be made in this connection to the following studies and long-range housing programmes: *Housing in Barbados*, Report of a Committee appointed by His Excellency the Governor to Submit Recommendations for the General Improvement of Housing and Domestic Sanitation in Barbados, including Proposals for Assistance under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act (Barbados, Advocate Co., Ltd., 1943); G. GIGLIOLI: *The Population and Housing Problem on the Sugar Estates of British Guiana*, *op. cit.*; Philip W. BOURNE, *Housing Study for the Republic of Haiti* (Washington Housing and Home Finance Agency, 1948); Anatole A. SOLOW: *Housing in Guatemala* (Washington, D.C., Pan American Union, 1950).

may make an important contribution to greater economy in construction and to increased comfort in housing accommodation.

Finally, governments will want to formulate long-term housing standards that are both acceptable and capable of realisation. Such standards are needed as a basis for the development of an adequate housebuilding industry.

Given the co-operation of governments, employers and workers, and full use of the types of technical assistance referred to above, emergency and long-term programmes along such lines as these should make possible substantial improvements in housing for large numbers of people in the reasonably near future.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Resettlement and Rehabilitation of Displaced Persons in Pakistan

The measures taken in the Indian Union for the resettlement and rehabilitation of the millions of persons uprooted as a result of the establishment of two separate States in 1947 have already been described in the Review.[1] *It is now possible to survey the progress made in the resettlement and rehabilitation of the displaced persons who have entered Pakistan, and the available information is therefore summarised below.*[2]

When India and Pakistan became sovereign States in August 1947 the provinces of Bengal, in the north-east, and Punjab, in the north-west, were partitioned. In addition, most of the predominantly Moslem Sylhet District of Assam was attached to East Bengal, while British Baluchistan, the North-West Frontier Province and Sind became part of West Pakistan. Four Baluchistan States and the States of Bahawalpur and Khairpur acceded to Pakistan.

Events preceding and following the partition were accompanied by great bitterness and violence, and a mass movement of Moslems from East Punjab and Delhi and of non-Moslems from Western Pakistan occurred, although the governments of both India and Pakistan discouraged it.

Movement and Number of Displaced Persons

In the case of West Pakistan (Punjab, Sind, North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan, and Bahawalpur State) a flood of displaced

[1] Vol. LVIII, No. 2, August 1948, pp. 187-98, and Vol. LXI, No. 4, April 1950, pp. 410-26.

[2] The main sources used are the notes issued by the Pakistan Ministry of Law and Labour at various times, information given by the Pakistan Press Information Department (particularly release E.NO.1000 of 20 March 1951), and two publications of the Pakistan Ministry of Refugees and Rehabilitation: *The Evacuee Property Problem—Pakistan's Case* (Karachi, 1951) and *Pakistan Today and Tomorrow* (Karachi, 1951).

persons poured in over a comparatively short period, the greatest number entering during the last four months of 1947. According to the Punjab Refugee Census 5,487,000 displaced persons had entered that province by 10 March 1948 ; this figure includes those who made their own way across the border, as well as those who were evacuated by the Military Evacuation Organisation, and over 200,000 who came from the States of Jammu and Kashmir. By the second quarter of 1948 the number of displaced persons in Sind was 707,000, in Bahawalpur State 265,000, in the North-West Frontier Province 31,000, and in Baluchistan 9,000. Although the largest influx of enforced migration was over by March 1948, small numbers have continued to arrive.

In contrast, in East Pakistan (East Bengal) there was no mass movement of displaced persons, but migrants have entered at a slow rate and in unascertained numbers since the partition. The uncertainty as to their numbers has in some respects rendered it more difficult to make adequate arrangements for their rehabilitation. It is estimated that there are about one million displaced persons in East Bengal.

It is thought that, out of a total population of perhaps 80 million, Pakistan may have as many as nine million displaced persons. This would mean that one out of every nine persons in the country as a whole is a displaced person ; in West Pakistan, where the proportion is higher, two persons out of every nine, and in the federal capital, Karachi, where the concentration is greatest, four out of every five persons.

Obstacles to Rehabilitation

The rehabilitation of such large numbers by a newly constituted State presented enormous problems. Pakistan had to organise a new administrative machinery at the same time, and there was a scarcity of experienced administrators. Moreover, no help was available from outside at all commensurate with the magnitude of the problem.

The displaced population had to be absorbed in an economy which had almost been paralysed, as large numbers of persons belonging to non-Moslem communities who had been engaged in trade and commerce and other essential professions such as law, medicine and teaching had left Pakistan on the countertide of enforced migration into India.

Pakistan's economy, being mainly agricultural, is comparatively inelastic. Although some industrial progress has been made during the last three years, it has not been sufficient to enable displaced persons to be absorbed into industrial occupations in any considerable number.

Owing to the great differences in the economic resources of different areas, it has not been possible to spread the displaced persons evenly throughout the country. They therefore remain concentrated in the more densely populated areas. The Punjab

alone is reported to have over 1,600,000, who cannot at present be absorbed. Almost every town and city in the Punjab and Sind is over-populated and suffers from a serious shortage of houses and commercial premises.

Resettlement and Rehabilitation so far Effected

A vast majority of the displaced persons, particularly the agriculturists who formed the bulk of the initial influx into West Pakistan, have been resettled. Considerable progress has also been made in the rehabilitation of displaced city-dwellers, though this has been retarded by housing shortages.

In West Pakistan it is estimated that about 5,300,000 displaced persons have been rehabilitated in the Punjab; of these more than 4,000,000 have been resettled in rural areas. In Sind nearly 480,000 have been settled on the land and 371,000 in urban areas. Bahawalpur, the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan have rehabilitated about 351,500, 48,000 and 14,000 respectively. Most of the 900,000 displaced persons in Karachi have been rehabilitated; a considerable number have been absorbed in government services, and others have been placed in various types of employment or have entered commerce or the professions.

In East Pakistan, the Government of East Bengal, with substantial financial help from the central Government, has put into effect various schemes for the rehabilitation of displaced agriculturists. About 5,450 agriculturist refugee families, consisting on the average of five persons per family, have been rehabilitated in the districts of Rajshahi, Pubna, Kushtia, Jessore, Dinajpur, Bogra, Dacca, Mymensingh, Chittagong, Sylhet and Rangpur. A grant of 1,102,650 rupees has been sanctioned to provide for maintenance, water supply, etc., and loans to a total value of 2,648,260 rupees have also been advanced for land acquisition, cattle purchase, seeds, etc. In addition, about 823 non-agriculturist refugee families have been rehabilitated at a cost of 939,266 rupees, of which 49,100 rupees were free grants and 890,166 rupees were loans for the construction of small stores with living accommodation and business capital.

Land Settlement

In order to facilitate the rehabilitation of displaced agriculturists in West Pakistan the available land was divided into family units of 5 to 12 acres (according to fertility and irrigation facilities), maintenance allowances up to 35 rupees per family were granted, and bullocks and implements were provided, mainly in the form of agricultural loans. These loans totalled nearly 80 million rupees up to August 1950. This was a temporary settlement, but it was felt that settlement on a more permanent basis was needed if new settlers were to retain interest in the land. According to a formula worked

out by the Pakistan-Punjab Refugees Council, it was decided that those displaced persons who had had proprietary or occupancy rights in certain areas in India should be given land of equal produce value out of evacuee lands. If the former holding had exceeded 250 acres, the area in excess of this figure was halved and a maximum of 450 standard acres was imposed for the new holding. This was the principal feature of the Rehabilitation Settlement Scheme.

The Government of the Punjab has almost completed the verification of the claims for land under the Rehabilitation Settlement Scheme and it is hoped that the majority of the claimants will have received what are called "semi-permanent allotments" by March 1952. Actual allotment of land started in April 1951.

In Sind also the claims of refugees from agreed areas for semi-permanent settlement have been invited and their verification has commenced.

Owing to the limited resources in agricultural land in Western Pakistan, however, it will soon become impossible to settle any more displaced persons on land without introducing measures for agricultural development.

Urban Rehabilitation

A large number of displaced persons in urban areas have been allotted industrial or commercial premises or shops. In all the big cities the available housing accommodation had to be rationed, as it was impossible to carry out a large-scale building programme within a short period.

In order to relieve the situation, however, the three main provinces concerned, viz., the Punjab, Sind and East Bengal, have taken steps, under the direction of the central Government (which has provided financial assistance) to prepare schemes for the establishment of satellite towns.

In Karachi, where the shortage of accommodation has been most serious, the Government has given every encouragement to those who wanted to construct new buildings. As a result, building activity in Karachi has been remarkable during the last two years. Apart from the construction work by private initiative, the Government itself has built about 10,000 units for lodging its employees. In spite of these efforts, however, the housing shortage is still acute and the Government has initiated large-scale housebuilding schemes.

House-Building Programmes.

As the building of new houses was the only way of providing adequate accommodation for the displaced persons, the construction programme proceeded in two main directions. Adequate housing and employment opportunities were required for a satisfactory settlement; it was therefore considered that the most effective plan would be to build extensions to existing large towns. It was

decided in addition to build a small number of modern, well planned townships in places where new employment was likely to be created to support an urban population. Different types and designs of houses have been built to suit various requirements. By the early part of 1951 the Government had sanctioned the following schemes: the Drigh Village Scheme in Karachi, the Lyallpur Scheme in the Punjab, the Tongi Scheme in East Bengal, the Hyderabad Scheme in Sind, and also a scheme for the construction of additional houses and shops in various places in the North-West Frontier Province.

Expenditure on development and acquisition of land has been estimated at 29.4 million rupees, which includes a central government grant of 14.7 million rupees from the Rehabilitation Fund.

A number of co-operative housing societies which were recently organised have been allotted land, and construction is expected to begin very soon.

Around the town of Karachi, where the lack of housing has been most serious, the Government has been building colonies, which include schools, dispensaries, shopping centres, mosques, etc. It has also planned the satellite township of Nazimbad near Karachi, where construction has already been started. In addition to the building of 3,000 houses for the poorer class of displaced persons, who can secure these on a hire-purchase basis at moderate rent, the Government is constructing public utility buildings. Recently it also started a project for building 10,000 *pucca* huts (made of baked bricks) which will be allotted to the poorer refugees. These huts are designed in such a way that they can later be extended to form two-roomed houses. As Karachi lacks adequate water supply and its geographical position will not allow it to expand beyond certain limits, the speedy establishment and growth of satellite towns in the hinterland has been given a high priority.

Establishment of Cottage Industries.

A large number of the displaced persons are artisans. In order to assist them to rehabilitate themselves and to help others who wished to get established in similar trades, the Pakistan Refugees Rehabilitation Finance Corporation was incorporated in 1948 with a capital of 10 million rupees. It has established cottage industries in Multan, Gujranwala, Shikarpur, Hyderabad, Bholari and Karachi. Its provincial boards in the North-West Frontier Province and in Eastern Pakistan are making plans for the establishment of cottage industries in those provinces. The Corporation is gradually expanding its activities. Apart from granting loans to help in the establishment of families in independent trades, it had given employment to about 4,000 refugee families up to 20 March 1951. Ownership of these industries is vested in co-operative societies consisting of the artisans themselves, who pay for the shares from the proceeds of their work. In some colonies the Corporation provides all facilities, including housing, water supply and electricity. The Corporation

has advanced a total of 4,180,325 rupees in the form of loans, and has also spent 375,000 rupees on housing schemes.

Administration and Expenditure

In 1947, the Government of Pakistan established a Ministry of Refugees and Rehabilitation, which works in close collaboration with similar departments established by the provincial governments. There is also a Refugee and Rehabilitation Council with headquarters at Karachi, which co-ordinates various schemes for the resettlement and rehabilitation of displaced persons.

Excluding the evacuees' property utilised for rehabilitation, a total of about 175 million rupees had been spent by 20 March 1951 for rehabilitation purposes. Of this sum, 55 million had been spent by the Government of Pakistan, which had also provided 20 million rupees as grants-in-aid to various federal units of Pakistan. The provincial governments had spent 110 millions rupees; the Finance Corporation about 5 million rupees; and the Quaid-i-Azam Relief Fund 25 million rupees. In addition, the Government of Pakistan spent vast sums for the maintenance of 500,000 displaced persons from Kashmir.

In order to secure more funds for starting rehabilitation schemes of a permanent nature, the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan has adopted supplementary proposals for taxation.

Conclusions

Although most of the displaced persons have been resettled, about 500,000 still remain to be rehabilitated. Besides this, a very large number of the displaced persons are not adequately rehabilitated and they still need assistance.

It was hoped that in the period 1949-1950 the Government of Pakistan would be able to concentrate its efforts on these two problems and arrange for adequate rehabilitation of all the displaced persons, but a new large-scale inflow made this impossible. The flow of displaced persons has not yet ceased and it is reported that, even now, about three hundred refugees enter West Pakistan every day.

One of the greatest obstacles to effective rehabilitation is the fact that, although the number of persons who left West Pakistan for India nearly balanced the number who entered from India, occupationally there was little correspondence between the two populations. Those who came into Pakistan were largely cultivators, farm or daily wage labourers, *tonga* (horse-carriage) drivers, oil pressers, butchers, small traders, and artisans; in certain occupations, such as pottery, weaving, blacksmithing and to some extent

carpentry and leather work, there was an overabundance. Those who left Pakistan included a large percentage of businessmen, and persons engaged in public services and liberal professions.

The main difficulties in resettling displaced persons in a community are (1) the excessive number in certain trades and occupations; (2) the fact that too many wish to settle on land because of social prestige attached to agricultural work; and (3) a great scarcity of persons for the liberal professions, administrators, public servants, traders and commercial employees. The most important step in any community planning is, therefore, to correct occupational unbalance so that the displaced persons may be able to settle in a wholesome community life in which all their various requirements (economic, social, educational and cultural, etc.) are adequately met.

STATISTICS

The periodical statistics of labour conditions in different countries are at present published in the *Review* as follows:

Monthly: Unemployment and employment; consumer price indices.

Two-monthly: January, March, etc.: Wages and hours of work, general level;

February, April, etc.: Wages and hours of work in manufacturing.

Unemployment and Employment

The tables show—

I. Number of *unemployed* or applicants for work.

II. Indices of the *general level of employment.*

III. *(a)* Indices of the level of *employment in manufacturing.*

(b) Indices of total hours worked in *manufacturing employment.*

Consumer Price Indices

The table presents general consumer price indices usually covering the main groups of expenditure (food, fuel and light, clothing, rent, and miscellaneous); and also the corresponding indices for the food group only.

Wages

The table in this issue shows the *general level* of wages, giving rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month.

Hours of Work

The table in this issue shows the *general level* of hours of work.

SYMBOLS AND TYPES EMPLOYED

. = inapplicable or figures not available.
... = not yet received.
* = provisional.
— = nil or negligible.
r = revised since previous issue.
e = represented by a few branches only.
o = relates to men only (wages tables).

A line ——— placed between two figures in a column indicates that the figures above and below it are not strictly comparable or that a new series begins below the line (see footnotes).

Bold type: index number (100) in base year.

Italics: index numbers based on another year than 1937.

The countries are arranged by continents in the alphabetical order of their English names.

Note: Figures for the separate industries, etc., covered by these series are given in tables 7, 8, 11, 14 and 18 of the *Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1949-50*; index numbers of the groups fuel and light, clothing, and rent, covered by the consumer prices indices, are given in table 23 B.

Further information on the scope and significance of these statistics is given in each January issue of the *Review* (see Vol. LXV, No. 1, January 1952, pp. 106-16).

Unemployment and Employment

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date	Africa		America			
	Southern Rhodesia	Union of South Africa	Canada			
	V (B)	V (B)	I		II	
				%		%
1937	.	4 510	406 000 [1]	9.1 [1]	.	.
1946	.	5 390	143 000	3.0	96 760	4.5
1947	253	10 266	98 000	2.0	68 254	3.0
1948	280	12 173	103 000	2.1	88 909	3.6
1949	245	15 138	137 000	2.7	135 624	5.4
1950	244	16 282	168 000	3.3	190 643	6.2
1951	...	10 190	108 750	2.1	...	...
1951 : Jan.	249	11 644	.	.	247 600 [2]	8.8
Feb.	216	11 201	.	.	243 800 [2]	8.7
Mar.	234	10 864	172 000	3.3	226 470 [2]	8.0
Apr.	205	10 839	.	.	136 848	5.0
May	196	10 619	.	.	88 900	3.2
June	195	10 065	85 000	1.6	86 523	3.1
July	226	9 445	.	.	83 889	3.0
Aug.	201	9 093	78 000	1.4	80 871	2.8
Sep.	177	9 368	.	.	83 140	2.9
Oct.	167	9 253	.	.	99 797 [2]	...
Nov.	125	9 740	100 000	1.9	153 651	...
Dec.	...	10 137	.	.	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	5 141 (1950)		2 667 (VI-1950)	

Date	America (concl.)					Asia			
	United States		Chile	Puerto Rico		Union of Burma [3]	Ceylon	India	Israel [4]
	I		V (B)	I		V (A)	V (B)	V (A)	V (B)
		%			%				
1937	7 700 000 [1]	14.3 [1]	2 315	.	.	.	.	.	.
1946	2 270 000	3.9	3 433	80 000 [5]	12.0 [5]	.	29 182	.	1 870
1947	2 142 000	3.6	3 700	76 000	11.0	3 116 [6]	32 995	.	2 772
1948	2 064 000	3.4	3 203	71 000	10.3	2 614	53 513	224 900	1 320 [7]
1949	3 395 000	5.5	3 445	79 000	11.3	844	68 358	293 043	6 351
1950	3 142 000	5.0	2 937	114 000	14.8	1 331	68 471	314 336	5 908
1951	1 879 000	3.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	2 503 000	4.1	2 466	161 000	20.5	1 908	64 500	345 159	6 538
Feb.	2 407 000	3.9	2 418	126 000	15.8	1 858	63 743	343 748	7 950
Mar.	2 147 000	3.4	2 754	98 000	12.4	2 618	60 953	337 092	4 980
Apr.	1 744 000	2.8	2 761	95 000	12.1	2 654	58 534	331 372	5 053
May	1 609 000	2.6	2 624	94 000	12.1	2 729	56 016	328 837	6 073
June	1 980 000	3.1	2 644	103 000	13.1	2 769	54 999	330 369	5 765
July	1 856 000	2.9	2 484	...	...	...	54 510	343 730	5 597
Aug.	1 578 000	2.5	2 417	...	...	...	54 458	358 814	5 615
Sep.	1 606 000	2.5	2 450	...	...	...	53 621	354 136	5 384
Oct.	1 616 000	2.5	2 556	...	...	...	53 858	331 192	6 037
Nov.	1 828 000	2.9	...	...	...	...	...	327 660	...
Dec.	1 674 000	2.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	2 054 000	3.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	63 099 (1950)		.	770 (1950)		.	.	.	.

I. Labour force sample surveys.
II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
III. Unemployment relief statistics.
IV. Trade union returns.
V. Employment office statistics.
V (A) Applicants for work registered.
V (B) Unemployed registered.

[1] Official estimate. [2] Incl. claimants for supplementary benefits. [3] Rangoon.
[4] Daily average during the month. [5] Mar.-Dec. [6] June-Dec. [7] Jan.-Mar., July-Dec.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(cont.)*

Date	Asia *(concl.)*			Europe			
	Japan		Pakistan	Austria		Belgium	
	I		V (A)	V (B) [1]		II	
		%			%		%
1937	295 443 [2]	3.7 [2]	.	320 961	.	125 929 [3]	13.8
1946	1 590 318 [4]	5.4 [4]	.	74 105	.	67 292	4.5
1947	370 000 [5]	1.1 [5]	.	31 737	1.7	67 560	3.5
1948	242 000	0.7	77 983	43 409	2.3	129 203	6.4
1949	378 000	1.0	70 996	91 238	4.6	234 896	11.7
1950	436 000	1.2	96 439	124 850	6.2	221 733	11.1
1951	...	...	103 913	116 243	...	205 964	10.0
1951 : Jan.	370 000	1.1	93 707	219 150	10.8	240 837	11.8
Feb.	370 000	1.1	89 867	199 012	9.9	203 359	9.9
Mar.	410 000	1.2	96 602	159 622	7.9	185 801	9.1
Apr.	390 000	1.1	93 988	117 759	5.8	187 052	9.1
May	350 000	0.9	97 210	96 837	4.8	182 430	8.9
June	340 000	0.9	96 251	79 613	3.9	190 698	9.3
July	390 000	1.0	100 180	73 114	3.6	200 189	9.8
Aug.	350 000	0.9	113 690	69 392	3.4	199 190	9.7
Sep.	310 000	0.8	116 008	66 970	3.3	193 528	9.5
Oct.	470 000	1.2	114 847	70 743	3.4	197 135	9.6
Nov.	460 000	1.2	118 638	91 677	4.4	213 245	10.4
Dec.	...	...	116 486	151 031	...	278 105	13.6
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	36 160 (1950)		.	2 010 (1950)		2 047 (VI-1950)	

Date	Europe *(cont.)*						
	Denmark [6]		Finland	France		Germany (Fed. Rep.)	
			V (B)	III	V (A)	V (B) [7]	
		%					%
1937	95 630	21.7	3 695 [8]	354 554	379 994	.	.
1946	51 636	8.9	892	15 663	56 633	.	.
1947	51 998	8.9	—	7 389	45 777	595 242 [9]	.
1948	51 644	8.7	3 473	16 737	77 803	603 858	4.3
1949	59 041	9.6	25 688	89 748	131 062	1 262 997	8.5
1950	54 829	8.7	19 194	52 355	152 891	1 585 246	10.2
1951	...	...	5 622	40 297	120 128	1 430 819	9.0
1951 : Jan.	98 725	15.3	14 797	55 582	164 050	1 821 259	.
Feb.	94 506	14.6	17 118	56 698	159 462	1 662 402	.
Mar.	94 659	14.6	16 534	53 986	144 877	1 566 744	9.9
Apr.	42 609	6.6	10 454	50 134	140 387	1 446 131	.
May	29 962	4.6	3 373	45 215	122 956	1 386 916	.
June	26 017	4.0	—	38 813	104 593	1 325 847	8.3
July	35 936	5.5	—	32 989	90 802	1 292 058	.
Aug.	38 569	5.9	—	31 140	90 675	1 259 311	.
Sep.	38 593	6.0	45	28 577	93 158	1 234 979	7.7
Oct.	44 357	6.8	174	27 341	101 768	1 213 936	.
Nov.	75 049	11.5	1 392	30 250	112 400	1 306 596	.
Dec.	137 351*	21.0	3 580	33 038	116 416	1 653 553	10.2
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	634 (1950)		.	.	.	15 491 (1950)	

For an explanation of the Roman numerals used in this table, see p. 388.

[1] Prior to 1947, applicants for work registered. [2] Official estimate. [3] Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. [4] Census of 26 Apr. [5] Oct. [6] Trade union fund returns of unemployed members. [7] Figures prior to Sep. 1948 included all unemployed persons available for work under Order No. 3 of the Allied Control Authority, whether actually seeking work or not. [8] Applicants for work registered. [9] Mar.-Dec.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(cont.)*

Date	Europe *(cont.)*					
	Ireland			Italy	Luxembourg	Netherlands
	II		V (A)	V (B)	III	V (B)
		%				
1937	.	.	81 760	874 000	18	368 904
1946	35 067	10.6	59 726	1 324 000	21	88 742
1947	33 266	9.3	55 623	1 620 000	50	45 889
1948	35 129	9.4	61 203	1 791 800 [1]	17	42 422
1949	34 906	9.0	60 606	1 672 708	20	62 335
1950	30 347	7.6	53 415	1 614 940	38	79 071
1951	30 406	7.3	50 453	...	...	92 778
1951: Jan.	36 677	8.8	65 512	1 867 818	142	114 966
Feb.	35 479	8.5	63 453	1 774 712	32	103 303
Mar.	33 101	7.9	58 721	1 593 957	23	90 508
Apr.	32 270	7.7	58 000	1 676 339	...	81 450
May	29 274	7.0	50 738	1 707 876	...	69 103
June	25 510	6.1	37 286	1 696 076	...	60 980
July	25 174	6.0	36 355	1 679 910	...	67 585
Aug.	25 831	6.2	37 192	1 670 220	...	78 714
Sep.	26 045	6.2	38 606	1 667 644	...	78 529
Oct.	28 170	6.7	41 296	...	...	93 252
Nov.	34 312	8.2	58 821	...	...	121 140
Dec.	33 030	7.9	59 459	...	...	153 809
1952: Jan.	42 966	10.1	73 037	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	407 (1950)		.	.	.	.

Date	Europe *(cont.)*							
	Norway		Portugal	Saar		Spain	Sweden	
	V (B)		V (B)	[2]		V (B)	IV	
		%			%			%
1937	29 881 [3]	.	17 158 [4]	.	.	.	67 351	10.8
1946	12 246 [5]	2.0 [5]	2 387	.	.	178 165	27 554 [6]	3.2 [6]
1947	8 514 [5]	1.2 [5]	1 799	.	.	138 771	24 446	2.8
1948	9 026	1.3	1 494	6 640 [7]	2.5 [7]	117 020	25 747	2.8
1949	7 715	1.0	1 586	6 070	2.2	160 056	26 116	2.7
1950	8 972	...	2 142	6 343	2.2	166 182	22 124	2.2
1951	11 140	...	2 325	...	...	...	...	...
1951: Jan.	21 227	...	2 234	5 602	1.9	178 828	27 050	2.7
Feb.	20 951	...	2 298	5 015	1.7	184 568	24 312	2.4
Mar.	22 543	...	2 236	4 614	1.6	167 871	29 746	2.9
Apr.	17 034	...	2 229	4 587	1.6	160 272	17 512	1.7
May	6 386	...	2 294	4 239	1.4	154 220	11 810	1.1
June	3 515	...	2 296	3 707	1.3	134 935	11 894	1.1
July	2 478	...	2 356	3 899	1.3	126 797	14 740	1.4
Aug.	3 482	...	2 323	4 113	1.4	128 949	11 934	1.1
Sep.	4 617	...	2 346	3 883	1.3	126 306	9 650	0.9
Oct.	6 313	...	2 388	3 875	1.3	125 109	9 315 *	0.9 *
Nov.	10 099	...	2 420	3 761	1.3	...	...	...
Dec.	15 046	...	2 482	...	...	...	...	...
1952: Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.		.	282 (1950)		.	999 (1950)	

For an explanation of the Roman numerals used in this table, see p. 388.

[1] Jan.-June. [2] Labour registration statistics. [3] Applicants for work registered. [4] Dec. [5] Excl. Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms. [6] Since 1946 incl. agricultural workers. [7] June-Dec.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(concl.)*

Date	Europe *(concl.)*					
	Switzerland		United Kingdom			
	II [1]	V (B) [1]	V (B) [1]		V (B) [2]	
	%			%		%
1937	10 0	57 949	1 324 027	8.5	205 063	1.5
1946	1.0	4 262	390 106 [3]	2.5	4 058 [3]	—
1947	0.8	3 473	342 295 [3]	2.0	156 028 [3]	1.0
1948	0.6	2 971	325 818 [4]	1.5	8 555 [4]	—
1949	1.6	8 059	328 426	1.6	9 571	—
1950	1.8	9 599	332 057	1.6	9 036	—
1951	...	3 798	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	2.6	12 473	355 788	1.7	10 861	—
Feb.	1.8	7 812	326 062	1.6	8 826	—
Mar.	1.0	4 397	297 835	1.4	7 549	—
Apr.	0.4	1 800	273 486	1.3	7 123	—
May	0.3	1 501	233 451	1.1	7 237	—
June	0.2	1 191	206 686	1.0	7 838	—
July	0.2	1 159	198 268	0.9	11 473	0.1
Aug.	0.2	1 237	215 852	1.0	11 850	0.1
Sep.	0.2	1 384	226 651	1.1	13 998	—
Oct.	0.3	1 841	257 947	1.2	31 900	0.2
Nov.	0,6	3 301	283 120	1.3	39 839	0.2
Dec.	...	7 488	...	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	580 (1950)	.	21 120 (VI/50)			

Date	Oceania					
	Australia		Hawaii		New Zealand	
	IV	[5]	I [6]		II [7]	V (B)
	%			%		
1937	9.3	.	.	.	.	.
1946	1.4	7 603	2 133	1.1	172	386
1947	1.2	6 684	2 953	1.6	47	92
1948	0.9	2 629	8 741	4.5	33	67
1949	1.9	10 331	25 224	12.9	48	92
1950	0.8	1 231	22 763	11.8	21	37
1951	...	...	10 340	5.3	15	38
1951 : Jan.	.	704	14 579	7.6	7	17
Feb.	0.7	974	13 268	6.9	7	15
Mar.	.	1 190	11 482	6.0	10	12
Apr.	.	670	10 769	5.6	10	29
May	0.8	671	11 142	5.8	21	74
June	.	604	12 789	6.5	27	60
July	.	630	9 998	5.0	16	39
Aug.	0.6	367	8 816	4.3	20	39
Sep.	.	505	8 428	4.3	16	68
Oct.	.	392	7 750	4.0	12[r]	54
Nov.	...	719	8 000	4.2	13	25
Dec.	.	...	7 070	3.7	16	29
1952 : Jan.	.	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	827 (1950)	.	195 (1949)		.	.

For an explanation of the Roman numerals used in this table, see p. 388.

[1] Wholly unemployed. [2] Temporarily unemployed. [3] Excl. persons classified as unsuitable for ordinary employment. [4] July-Dec. Until June 1948 the statistics referred to persons insured under the Unemployment Insurance Acts. With the introduction in July 1948 of the National Insurance Acts, the coverage of the series has been extended to include all registered unemployed, with the exception of registered severely disabled persons unlikely to obtain work other than under special conditions, and the percentages are based on total employees aged 15 years and over insured under the Acts. [5] Unemployment benefit statistics. [6] For 1946 and 1947, annual estimates (June). [7] Persons in receipt of unemployment benefit.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL

Indices of numbers employed

Date	Africa		America			
	Union of South Africa		Canada		United States	
	Europeans	Total			B.L.S. [1]	B.C. [2]
	IV (A/B)		IV (A)	I	IV (A/B)	I
	M.I.T. [3]		M.I.T.C. [3]	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.
	W.S.		W.S.	[4]	W.S.	[4]
1937	77.3	77.8	60.7	.	69.5	78.0 [5]
1946	94.1	96.8	.	95.3	93.7	93.0
1947	96.8	98.7	95.9	98.6	98.1	97.7
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1949	102.9	104.3	100.3	102.0	97.3	98.9
1950	103.8	106.3	101.8	101.9	99.8	101.0
1951	...	...	...	106.1	...	102.7
1951 : Jan.	103.8	104.0	106.2	.	102.4	99.4
Feb.	104.7	107.1	104.4	.	102.7	99.2
Mar.	104.9	108.6	104.4	102.5	103.7	101.3
Apr.	104.9	109.0	105.0	.	104.1	101.1
May	105.0	109.9	106.4	.	104.6	103.1
June	104.8	110.2	109.3	107.5	105.3	104.1
July	104.8	110.1	111.3	.	105.0	105.3
Aug.	104.8	110.5	111.7	109.5	105.7	105.5
Sep.	104.8	110.2	112.4	.	106.1 *	103.7
Oct.	104.8	109.9	113.0	.	106.0 *	104.1
Nov.	...	...	112.8 *	104.7	105.7	103.3
Dec.	...	...	...	.	...	102.8
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands) [6]	253	950	.	4 879	44 201	59 378

Date	America (concl.)	Asia		Europe		
	Puerto Rico	Japan		Austria	Belgium [7]	France
	I	I		II	II	IV (A)
	A.M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.
	[4]	[4]	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.
1937	.	.	.	73.2	.	92.8
1946	95.4 [8]	.	.	91.5	76.8 [9]	92.1
1947	99.7	100.2 [10]	97.4 [10]	98.5	97.2	97.4
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1949	101.5	104.2	99.0	100.4	94.9	101.7
1950	107.0	103.3	102.3	100.5	96.8	102.1
1951	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	101.6	97.0	110.4	96.0	.	102.8
Feb.	109.0	95.5	112.8	96.8	.	.
Mar.	112.5	101.2	111.0	98.9	.	.
Apr.	112.5	103.3	112.7	101.6	.	103.8
May	111.9	106.9	110.1	103.1	.	.
June	111.9	109.1	109.4	104.3	...	.
July	...	108.5	110.5	105.1	.	105.0
Aug.	...	106.7	113.5	105.8	.	.
Sep.	...	106.2	113.6	105.9	.	.
Oct.	...	110.0 r	112.9 r	106.0	.	105.9
Nov.	...	107.9 r	112.5 r	105.0	.	.
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	.
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	.	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	614	34 596	11 750	1 876	1 702	7 534

I. Labour force sample surveys. II. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). III. Labour registration statistics. IV. Statistics of establishments. IV (A) : all establishments of a given importance ; IV (B) : representative sample of establishments ; IV (A/B) : type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. A. Agriculture. M. Mining. I. Industry (manufacturing industries and construction). T. Transport. C. Commerce. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Bureau of Labor Statistics. [2] Bureau of the Census. [3] Incl. logging. Monthly figures : first of the month. [4] Incl. all categories of workers in the labour force. [5] B.L.S. estimations. [6] Figure for persons covered relates to 1948 unless otherwise specified. [7] Annual figures : June. [8] Mar. [9] Excl. temporary workers of the national and local railways. [10] Oct.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL *(concl.)*

Indices of numbers employed

Date	Europe *(cont.)*					
	Germany (Fed. Rep.)	Ireland	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Norway	Saar
	IV (A)	II	IV (A)	II	II [1]	III
	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C. [2]	M.I.T.C.	[3]	M.I.T.C.
	W.S.	W.S.	W.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.
1937	.	87.0	98.5	67.8	.	.
1946	.	92.9	87.1 [3]	79.9	*97.7*	80.0 [3]
1947	.	96.3	90.9	90.1	*104.7*	94.1
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0** [4]	**100.0**
1949	102.5	98.6	106.6	104.1	102.3	102.7
1950	106.7	100.9	105.6	...	104.7	107.2
1951	...	...	...	...	105.8	...
1951 : Jan.	.	.	104.3	.	103.2	109.8
Feb.	.	.	106.1	.	104.1	110.6
Mar.	110.2	.	107.3	.	103.7	111.1
Apr.	.	.	109.2	.	103.8	111.3
May	.	.	110.8	.	105.5	111.6
June	113.8	.	111.8	.	107.9	111.8
July	.	.	112.9	.	108.1	112.0
Aug.	.	.	113.7	.	107.2	113.0
Sep.	115.3	.	...	.	107.6	113.7
Oct.	.	.	...	.	107.3	114.4
Nov.	.	.	...	.	106.9	116.5
Dec.	...	.	...	.	104.5	...
1952 : Jan.	.	.	...	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands	11 983	486	33	1 878	765	253

Date	Europe *(concl.)*			Oceania		
	United Kingdom [5]		Yugoslavia	Australia	Hawaii	New Zealand
	II [6]		IV (A)	IV (A/B)	I	IV (A)
	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C. [7]	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.
	[8]	W.S. [9]	W.S.	W.S.	[10]	W.S.
1937	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	.	.	.
1946	*98.6*	*98.5*	.	88.7	.	.
1947	*105.6*	*105.6*	.	95.9	.	97.0
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1949	100.7	100.9	**100.0**	102.8	92.2	102.3
1950	101.9	102.3	*95.4*	107.3	...	104.3
1951	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	102.0	102.8	.	109.3	...	105.6
Feb.	102.1	102.9	.	110.0	...	105.9
Mar.	102.2	103.0	...	110.2	...	105.6
Apr.	102.4	103.2	.	110.6	...	105.4
May	102.6	103.4	.	110.9	...	...
June	102.9	103.5	...	110.9	...	...
July	103.0	103.6	.	111.1	...	...
Aug.	103.3	104.0	.	111.1	...	...
Sep.	103.3	104.0	...	110.9	...	...
Oct.	103.1	103.9	.	111.0	...	...
Nov.	...	...	.	...	...	...
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	21 684	19 109	1 757	2 371	184	440

The Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table are explained on p. 392.

[1] 1946 and 1947 : unemployment insurance statistics, base 1941=100. [2] All non-agricultural employment ; prior to 1948 agriculture was included. [3] June-Dec. [4] Mar.-Dec. [5] Excl. Northern Ireland. [6] Annual figures : June. [7] Incl. forestry, fishing and trapping. [8] 1937 to 1948 : estimated total of persons in employment (men aged 14-64 and women 14-59) excl. indoor private domestic service ; since June 1948 (introduction of National Insurance) : estimated total of persons aged 15 and over in employment. [9] 1937 to 1948 : estimated number of employed wage and salary earners subject to the Unemployment Insurance Acts ; since June 1948 (introduction of National Insurance) : estimated total of employed wage and salary earners aged 15 years and over. [10] Covering persons aged 16 and over in employment.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING

(a) *Indices of numbers employed*

Date	AFRICA		AMERICA			
	Union of South Africa		Canada [1]	United States	Argentina	Brazil
	Europeans	Total	IV (A)	IV (A/B)	IV (B)	IV (B) [2]
	IV (A/B) [2]		W.S.	W.	W.	W.S.
	W.S.					
1937	81.4	64.1	58.0	68.1	50.0	.
1946	91.9	91.3	.	95.2	93.5	103
1947	96.1	94.8	97.1	100.6	.	102
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100**
1949	101.9	102.9	99.9	91.2	98.8	102
1950	101.1	103.1	100.8	96.4	97.0	98
1951	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	101.4	104.3	103.6	102.4	96.9	97
Feb.	103.2	108.3	104.8	103.7	...	97
Mar.	103.6	109.0	105.8	103.7	...	98'
Apr.	103.9	108.5	107.2	103.1	...	96
May	104.2	108.8	107.8	102.2	...	97'
June	104.0	110.0	109.0	102.7	...	97'
July	104.1	109.9	110.1	101.3	...	97
Aug.	104.2	110.6	110.2	102.8	...	...
Sep.	104.2	110.8	110.2	102.9 *	...	...
Oct.	104.3	110.7	110.3	102.2 *	...	...
Nov.	...	...	108.3 *	101.4 *	...	...
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	100	332	.	12 717	928	70

Date	AMERICA *(concl.)*			ASIA			EUROPE
	Mexico	Puerto Rico	Uruguay	India [4]	Israel	Japan	Belgium [5]
	IV (B)	I	IV (B)	IV (A)	IV (B)	I	II
	W.	W.S.	W.	W.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.
1937	73.0	.	67.2	**100.0**	.	.	.
1946	101.6	.	95.2	*147.0*	136	.	72.4
1947	100.0	101.1	100.4	96.4	116	103.8 [6]	98.4
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1949	101.8	98.9	...	103.2	123	103.4	93.7
1950	...	113.8	...	...	139	**100.0** [7]	94.3
1951	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	...	...	...	.	133	*115.9*	.
Feb.	...	...	...	.	138	*118.9*	.
Mar.	...	...	...	.	139	*112.6*	.
Apr.	...	...	...	.	136	*109.3*	.
May	...	...	...	.	139	*108.4*	.
June	...	...	...	.	138	*110.5*	...
July	...	...	...	.	140	*111.7*	.
Aug.	...	...	...	.	142	*114.0*	.
Sep.	...	...	...	.	...	*113.3*	.
Oct.	...	...	...	.	...	*110.5*	.
Nov.	...	...	...	.	...	...	.
Dec.	...	...	...	.	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	.	...	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	127	94	86	2 360	.	4 280 (July 1950)	987

The Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table are explained on p. 392.

[1] Monthly figures : first of the month. [2] Incl. building. [3] Large factories only. [4] 1937 and 1946 : former British India ; from 1947 : Indian Union. [5] Annual figures : June. [6] Oct. [7] July 1950=100 (new industrial classification introduced in that month).

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING *(cont.)*

(a) *Indices of numbers employed* (concl.)

Date	Europe *(cont.)*							
	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany (Fed. Rep.)	Ireland [1]	Italy	Netherlands	
	IV (A)	IV (B)	IV (A)	IV (A)	IV (A)	IV (A)	II	IV (B)
	W.	W.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S. [2]	W.	W.S.	W.
1937	75	.	90.7	.	.	.	66.1	.
1946	91	88.5	88.8	.	90.2	.	74.7	78
1947	95	94.9	96.4	.	102.7	101.7	88.6	91
1948	**100**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0** [3]	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100**
1949	104	100.6	102.2	106.1	106.2	98.8	105.0	105
1950	...	104.1	103.0	113.0	106.9	98.2	...	110
1951	...	108.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	.	105.4	104.5	.	.	96.5	.	.
Feb.	.	.	.	.	.	97.7	.	.
Mar.	.	.	.	119.8	107.1	98.3	.	...
Apr.	.	107.5	105.7	.	.	99.1	.	.
May	.	.	.	.	.	99.1	.	.
June	.	.	.	122.4	107.0	...	.	...
July	.	110.7	106.5	.	.	...	.	.
Aug.	.	.	.	.	.	...	.	.
Sep.	.	.	.	123.6	...	...	.	...
Oct.	.	108.4	107.6	.	.	...	.	.
Nov.	.	.	.	.	.	...	.	.
Dec.	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	...
1952 : Jan.	.	...	...	.	.	...	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	223	95	3 767	5 058 [3]	122	1 696	946	616

Date	Europe *(concl.)*						Oceania	
	Norway	Saar	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom [4]	Yugoslavia	Australia	New Zealand
	II [5]	III	IV (A) [6]	IV (B)	II [7]	IV (A)	IV (A/B)	IV (A) [8]
	W.S.	W.S.	W.	W.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S. [9]
1937	.	.	79.7	73.8	**100.0**	.	62.5	**100.0**
1946	*110.6*	73.4 [10]	98.4	91.0	*94.7*	.	90.7	*130.4*
1947	*124.1*	89.9	99.1	98.4	*102.0*	.	95.8	97.6
1948	**100.0** [11]	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	**100.0**
1949	103.1	108.6	100.6	93.7	102.1	**100.0**	101.1	102.4
1950	105.8	117.6	100.8	92.2	104.8	*101.3*	106.1	105.3
1951	108.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	106.9	124.4	101.8	.	107.1	.	107.6	104.1
Feb.	108.5	125.2	102.5	.	107.3	.	108.4	105.6
Mar.	107.3	126.0	102.8	97.4	107.4	.	108.5	105.9
Apr.	107.2	127.2	103.3	.	107.5	.	109.0	106.3
May	109.4	127.4	102.9	.	107.5	.	109.5	...
June	111.0	127.3	.	100.6	107.3	...	109.6	...
July	109.9	127.8	102.5	.	107.4	.	109.7	...
Aug.	108.8	129.2	102.2	.	108.0	.	109.7	...
Sep.	108.9	130.0	102.2	102.6	108.2	.	109.6	...
Oct.	108.5	131.0	103.2	.	108.2	.	109.9	...
Nov.	107.8	131.6	103.3	.	...	.	...	...
Dec.	106.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	.	...	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	275	87	653	.	7853	475	830	140

The Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table are explained on p. 392.

[1] Annual figures 1946 to 1949 : Oct. [2] Incl. working proprietors. [3] Average of last three quarters. [4] Excl. Northern Ireland. Annual figures : June. [5] 1946 and 1947 : unemployment insurance statistics incl. mining, base 1941 = 100. [6] Incl. mining. [7] 1937 to 1948 : estimated number of employed wage and salary earners subject to the Unemployment Insurance Acts ; since June 1948 (introduction of National Insurance) : estimated number of employees 15 years and over in employment. [8] Incl. power and water supply. [9] Up to 1946 : wage earners only. [10] June-Dec. [11] Mar.-Dec.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING *(concl.)*

(b) *Indices of total hours worked*

Date	America		Asia	Europe	
	United States [1]	Argentina	Israel [2]	Denmark	Finland
	IV (A/B)	IV (B)	IV (B)	IV (B)	IV (B)
	W.	W.	W.S.	W.	W.
1937	65.6	.	.	76	.
1946	95.9	.	135	87	87.1
1947	101.3	.	118	93	93.6
1948	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100**	**100**	**100.0**
1949	89.2	97.7	123	105	98.8
1950	97.4	97.3	138	111	103.0
1951	...	...	...	...	107.6
1951 : Jan.	104.7	91.1	135	115	106.6
Feb.	105.8	...	126	117	.
Mar.	106.3	...	138	120	.
Apr.	105.4	...	132	120	110.0
May	103.7	...	138	121	.
June	104.2	...	137	119	.
July	101.5	...	136	86	105.2
Aug.	103.3	...	136	110	.
Sep.	104.1	...	...	120	.
Oct.	...	...	...	118	108.4
Nov.	...	...	...	118	.
Dec.	...	...	...	...	.
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	12 717	928	.	.	95

Date	Europe *(concl.)*					
	France	Germany (Fed. Rep.)	Ireland [3]	Italy	Norway	Sweden
	IV (A)	IV (A) [4]	IV (A) [4]	IV (A)	IV (A) [4]	IV (A) [4]
	W.	[5]	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	82.0	.	79.5	.	75.9	.
1946	86.5	.	91.4	.	82.6	98.3
1947	96.6	.	96.8	103.6	93.9	98.0
1948	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1949	100.5	*92.1* [6]	106.6	100.1	103.2	...
1950	103.0	**100.0**	...	102.2	...	...
1951	...	...	...	...	...	...
1951 : Jan.	104.8	*120.7*	.	103.7	.	.
Feb.	.	*114.1*	.	104.2	.	.
Mar.	.	*120.9*	.	109.4	.	.
Apr.	106.2	*122.4*	.	105.4	.	.
May	.	*120.2*	.	104.3	.	.
June	.	*122.9*	.	...	.	.
July	107.1	*120.5*	.	...	.	.
Aug.	.	*123.0*	.	...	.	.
Sep.	.	*119.1*	.	...	.	.
Oct.	108.3	*130.6*	.	...	.	.
Nov.	.	*128.6*	.	...	.	.
Dec.	.	...	.	...	.	.
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	...	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	3 767	4 796	122	1 696	198	653

The Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table are explained on p. 392.

[1] Calculated by the I.L.O. by multiplying the index of numbers employed by the index of hours worked per worker. [2] Total number of days worked. [3] Week in Oct. of each year. [4] Incl. mining. [5] Incl. all categories of workers. [6] July-Dec.

Consumer Price Indices

Country	Africa						America	
	Algeria	Egypt	Northern Rhodesia	Southern Rhodesia	Tunis	Union of South Africa	Canada	United States
Town or no. of localities	Algiers	Cairo	Whole country	5	Tunis	9	11-64 [1]	34-56 [2]
All groups								
			[3]	[4]		[5]		
1937	.	.	.	70	.	65	65	60
1946	.	102	91	90	.	91	80	81
1947	.	99	97	93	.	95	87	93
1948	.	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	.	99	104	106 [6]	.	104	104	99
1950	.	104	108	114	.	108	107	100
1951	.	...	...	...	.	116	119	108
1950 : Dec.	.	109	110	116	.	112	110	104
1951 : Jan.	.	111	111	116	.	112	111	106
Feb.	.	112	111	117	.	113	113	107
Mar.	.	112	112	119	.	113	116	107
Apr.	.	112	112	119	.	114	117	107
May	.	113	113	120	.	115	117	108
June	.	113	113	121	.	116	119	108
July	.	113	114	121	.	117[r]	121[r]	108
Aug.	.	114	115	123	.	116	122	108
Sep.	.	114	115	123	.	117	122	109
Oct.	.	115	116	123	.	116	123	109
Nov.	.	...	...	...	.	117	123	110
Dec.	.	...	116	126	.	121	123	110
1952 : Jan.	.	...	...	...	.	...	...	...
Food group								
	[7]				[8]			
1937	.	.	.	.	.	61	53	50
1946	36	105	88	81	46	92	72	76
1947	61	100	94	88	67	97	81	92
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	123	102	107	106 [6]	127	103	104	96
1950	124	111	111	121	132	109	108	97
1951	...	...	...	...	...	116	123	108
1950 : Dec.	123	117	112	126	140	112	112	103
1951 : Jan.	123	119	114	126	141	112	113[r]	106
Feb.	127	120	115	128	143	113	115[r]	108
Mar.	128	120	116	131	146	114	120[r]	108
Apr.	128	119	116	131	142	115	122	107
May	128	118	119	133	143	116	120	108
June	129	119	119	134	142	117	123[r]	108
July	132	119	119	139	141	117	128[r]	108
Aug.	133	119	121	132	146	116	129[r]	108
Sep.	136	120	121	133	152	116	128	108
Oct.	143	122	121	133	156	115	128[r]	109
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	117	128	110
Dec.	...	...	123	134	...	128	128[r]	110
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

[1] Food prices collected in 64 towns ; other items priced in 11-64 towns. [2] Food prices collected in 56 towns ; other items priced in 34-55 towns. [3] Excl. misc. [4] 1937 : food, rent and clothing only. [5] Incl. direct taxes. [6] Since Nov. 1949, calculated with " seasonal movements eliminated ". [7] Incl. heat and light. [8] Incl. heat, light and soap.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	America *(cont.)*						
	Argentina	Brazil	British Honduras	British West Indies		Chile	Colombia
Town or no. of localities	Buenos Aires	São Paulo	Belize	Kingston (Jamaica)	St. Vincent	Santiago	Bogotá
				All groups			
1937	49	.	.	.	.	22	35
1946	78	77	80 [1]	70	87	63	73
1947	88	91	98 [1]	83	93	85	86
1948	**100**	**100**	**100** [1]	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	131	99	97 [1]	104	99	119	107
1950	165	105	96 [1]	109	103	137	128
1951	...	...	119 [1]	...	111	...	...
1950 : Dec.	182	104	106	112	102	149	141
1951 : Jan.	181	106	106	111	103	148	140
Feb.	186	109	106	113	104	152	139
Mar.	187	109	110	117	104	153	140
Apr.	203	111	109	119	105	154	143
May	219	113	113	122	108	158	146
June	...	116	114	124	110	161	145
July	...	...	119	126	113	166	143
Aug.	...	...	120	128	115	175	138
Sep.	...	...	120	...	116	185	138
Oct.	...	...	125	...	116	...	...
Nov.	...	...	125	...	117	...	...
Dec.	...	...	126	...	118	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
				Food group			
1937	47	.	.	.	.	23	33
1946	76	74	80 [1]	69	87	64	73
1947	88	88	99 [1]	80	92	86	87
1948	**100**	**100**	**100** [1]	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	130	96	95 [1]	106	97	115	104
1950	167	103	89 [1]	115	102	134	129
1951	...	...	117 [1]	...	110	...	...
1950 : Dec.	185	101	103	118	101	152	145
1951 : Jan.	179	100	103	115	102	148	144
Feb.	187	103	103	116	103	150	142
Mar.	186	104	107	122	103	151	142
Apr.	199	105	107	123	103	151	146
May	206	107	111	128	106	152	150
June	...	112	112	131	109	157	149
July	...	...	117	134	114	163	145
Aug.	...	...	118	136	115	178	138
Sep.	...	...	119	...	116	198	138
Oct.	...	...	124	...	117	...	...
Nov.	...	...	125	...	118	...	...
Dec.	...	...	127	...	119	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

[1] July.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	America *(cont.)*						
	Costa Rica	Cuba	Dominican Republic	Guatemala	Mexico	Neth. Antilles	Panama
Town or no. of localities	San José	30	Trujillo City	Guatemala	Mexico City	Curaçao	Panama
All groups							
1937	46	.	.	.	27 [1]	.	.
1946	85	.	88	92 [2]	84	.	.
1947	97	.	99	94	94	.	.
1948	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	.
1949	108	.	96	107	105	**100** [3]	.
1950	119	.	96	115	112	97	.
1951	...	.	105	...	...	...	.
1950 : Dec.	124	.	98	118	115	*97*	.
1951 : Jan.	126	.	98	112	116	.	.
Feb.	126	.	100	118	118	*99*	.
Mar.	129	.	99	118	118	*102*	.
Apr.	129	.	102	122	119	...	.
May	130	.	103	124	122	...	.
June	128	.	106	130	125	...	.
July	128	.	107	131	131	*102*	.
Aug.	127	.	108r	119	129	*102*	.
Sep.	127	.	109	116r	129	*103*	.
Oct.	...	.	109	117	133	*103*	.
Nov.	...	.	108	...	...	*103*	.
Dec.	...	.	107	...	...	...	.
1952 : Jan.	...	.	...	...	...	...	.
Food group							
1937	46	37 [4]	.	.	27	.	.
1946	86	78	87	87 [2]	83	.	88
1947	100	92	105	90	95	.	98
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100**
1949	101	87	87	110	104	**100** [3]	93
1950	110	84	92	121	108	*96*	90
1951	...	...	104	...	...	...	94
1950 : Dec.	112	89	94	125	112	*98*	92
1951 : Jan.	117	89	93	115	112	.	91
Feb.	117	92	96	126	114	*102*	91
Mar.	122	93	97	125	114	*107*	93
Apr.	124	93	100	129	116	...	93
May	124	...	101	133	119	...	94
June	121	...	111	142	122	...	95
July	120	...	110	143	130	*108*	95
Aug.	118	...	107	...	128	*108*	95
Sep.	118	...	108	...	128	*108*	95
Oct.	...	...	108	...	133	*109*	95
Nov.	...	...	108	...	...	*109*	94
Dec.	...	...	105	...	...	...	94
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

[1] Excl. rent and misc. [2] Aug.-Dec. [3] June. [4] July-Dec.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	America *(concl.)*				Asia			
	Peru	Puerto Rico	Uruguay	Venezuela	Burma	Ceylon	Cyprus	Hong Kong
Town or no. of localities	Lima	6	Montevideo	Caracas	Rangoon	Colombo	5	[1]
All groups								
1937	30	.	56	.	28	.	.	.
1946	59	89	85	.	106[2 3]	88	73	.
1947	76	101	98	.	108	97	80 [4]	102
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	115	92	105	.	135	99	96	112
1950	129	90	101	.	114	105	*103* [5]	117
1951	...	...	...	.	...	109	...	...
1950 : Dec.	136	94	103	.	108	105	*107*	116
1951 : Jan.	140	95	106	.	108	108	*106*	.
Feb.	139	96	106	.	107	109	*112*	.
Mar.	139	97	105	.	102	109	*112*	126
Apr.	140	97	114	.	106	109	*112*	.
May	140	98	115	.	107	109	*112*	.
June	141	99	115	.	117	109	*115*	128
July	141	100	115	.	123	108	*120*	.
Aug.	142[r]	100	117	.	124	107	*119*	.
Sep.	143	101	120	.	121	107	*120*	130
Oct.	...	...	121	.	112	108	*122*	.
Nov.	...	...	124	.	...	109	...	.
Dec.	...	...	...	.	...	111	*120*	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	.	...	...	*120*	.
Food group								
				[6]				
1937	27	.	51	48	25	.	.	.
1946	54	85	83	72	151 [2]	82	77	.
1947	74	101	102	83	115	91	83 [4]	101
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	116	89	100	98	142	104	94	119
1950	134	88	91	97	120	112	*106* [5]	127
1951	...	...	...	...	...	112	...	...
1950 : Dec.	144	94	92	104	115	109	*109*	121
1951 : Jan.	149	96	97	102	115	114	*108*	.
Feb.	148	97	95	100	112	115	*115*	.
Mar.	148	97	95	101	105	114	*114*	130
Apr.	147	98	102	102	109	113	*112*	.
May	147	99	104	104	111	112	*112*	.
June	148	99	105	108	126	112	*119*	136
July	149	100	105	105	137	110	*128*	.
Aug.	150	100	109	106	139	110	*126*	.
Sep.	152	101	115	106	135	111	*129*	140
Oct.	...	...	115	...	121	111	*134*	.
Nov.	...	...	116	...	...	111	...	.
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	114	*127*	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	*128*	.

[1] Clerical and skilled workers. [2] New series, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [3] Sep.-Dec. Jan.-Sep. [4] New series; 12 Jan. 1950 = 100. [5] Incl. soap and coal.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	Asia *(cont.)*							
	India			Indonesia	Iran	Israel	Japan	Lebanon
Town or no. of localities	Ahmed-abad	Bombay	Delhi	Djakarta[1]	7	2	28	Beirut [3]
All groups								
						[2]		[3]
1937	31	35	.	.	13	.	.	.
1946	86	85	81	.	90	79	27 [4]	112
1947	90	92	92	.	91	80	57	102
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	102	101	100	.	109	103	138	94
1950	106	103	100	.	89	95	128	87
1951	...	...	...	.	93	...	...	...
1950 : Dec.	97	102	98	.	87	96	133	91
1951 : Jan.	98	105	102	.	87	97	138r	94
Feb.	104	106	105	.	92	99	142	95
Mar.	110	110	105	.	93	100	146r	95
Apr.	111	111	105	.	94	101	149r	94
May	114	111	106	.	93	102	154	94
June	112	111	109	.	93	101	148r	93
July	111	110	110	.	92	102	149	92
Aug.	107	108	111	.	93	104	159	91
Sep.	104	107	...	.	93	106	158	93
Oct.	105	110	...	.	94	109	155	95
Nov.	106	110	...	.	96	...	156	95
Dec.	...	...	...	.	96	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	.	...	...	...	...
Food group								
1937	28	33	.	.	13	.	.	.
1946	90	91	86	.	89	77	32 [4]	106
1947	96	99	99	179	90	77	64	96
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	105	105	101	97	111	97	134	91
1950	112	109	101	113	85	86	120	81
1951	...	...	...	...	88	...	...	...
1950 : Dec.	98	107	99	129	81	85	119	88
1951 : Jan.	100	110	105	139	78	86	126	90
Feb.	109	112	109	204	87	87	131	92
Mar.	119	118	110	194	89	87	139	92
Apr.	114	116	110	164	90	88	140	91
May	119	116	110	163	88	89	145	91
June	115	117	114	173	88	88	136	88
July	115	116	115	192	86	89	136	86
Aug.	110	113	114	189	87	90	150	86
Sep.	105	111	...	191	87	93	148	89
Oct.	107	116	...	212	89	97	140	93
Nov.	109	116	...	216	91	...	139	95
Dec.	...	...	...	...	93	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

[1] Index of the free-market retail prices of 19 foodstuffs, based on the consumption in 1932 of an Indonesian family with a monthly income of fl. 25-50. [2] Salaried employees. [3] Incl. direct taxes. [4] Aug.-Dec.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	Asia *(concl.)*						
	Malaya		Pakistan		Philippines	Thailand[3]	Viet-Nam
Town or no. of localities	Kuala Lumpur		Karachi	Narayanganj	Manila	Bangkok	Saigon
	1	2					
All groups							
1937	.	.	.	.	24	.	.
1946	.	.	.	.	144	86	46[4]
1947	106	.	.	.	106	100	74
1948	**100**	.	.	.	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	94	**100**[5]	**100**[6]	**100**[6]	94	96	**100**[7]
1950	101	*108*	*95*	*98*	93	99	*102*
1951	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1950 : Dec.	113	*122*	*94*	*99*	97	100	*106*
1951 : Jan.	120	*128*	*95*	*99*	98	104	*108*
Feb.	126	*132*	*96*	*99*	98	113	*109*
Mar.	130	*136*	*98*	*99*	97	114	*108*
Apr.	131	*134*	*98*	*100*	99	117	*110*
May	132	*135*	*97*	*100*	100	115	*113*
June	133	*136*	*99*	*104*	101	112	*116*
July	134	*137*	*99*	*103*	101	109	*115*
Aug.	136	*138*	*99*	*102*	100	109	*118*
Sep.	137	*138*	*99*	...	100	109	*120*
Oct.	138	*139*	*101*	...	...	108	*120*
Nov.	139	*140*	...	...	...	106	*123*
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Food group							
1937	.	.	.	.	23	.	.
1946	.	.	.	.	168	.	44[4]
1947	.	.	.	.	108	.	74
1948	.	.	.	.	**100**	.	**100**
1949	.	.	**100**[6]	**100**[6]	93	.	**100**[7]
1950	.	.	*93*	*97*	86	.	*96*
1951	.	.	...	...	...	.	...
1950 : Dec.	.	.	*92*	*98*	91	.	*96*
1951 : Jan.	.	.	*94*	*98*	92	.	*97*
Feb.	.	.	*96*	*98*	93	.	*97*
Mar.	.	.	*99*	*98*	90	.	*95*
Apr.	.	.	*98*	*99*	94	.	*96*
May	.	.	*97*	*99*	95	.	*98*
June	.	.	*100*	*104*	96	.	*101*
July	.	.	*100*	*102*	96	.	*103*
Aug.	.	.	*100*	*101*	96	.	*106*
Sep.	.	.	*101*	...	96	.	*108*
Oct.	.	.	*103*	...	...	.	*110*
Nov.	.	.	...	...	...	.	*113*
Dec.	.	.	...	...	...	.	...
1952 : Jan.	.	.	...	...	...	.	...

[1] Chinese labourers. [2] Malay labourers. [3] Clerical workers and civil servants. [4] Mar.-Dec. [5] Jan. [6] Apr. 1948-Mar. 1949. [7] New index.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	Europe					
	Austria	Belgium	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany (Federal Republic)
Town or no. of localities	Vienna	62	200	33 [1]	Paris	
				All groups		
	[2]	[2]	[3]	[3]		
1937	.	26	59	12	.	62
1946	.	.	95	57	.	.
1947	.	87	98	74	.	.
1948	**100** [4]	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100** [4]
1949	122	97	101	102	**100**	99
1950	140	96	107	116	*111*	93
1951	178	105	...	135	*130*	101
1950 : Dec.	153	98	.	127	*117*	93
1951 : Jan.	154	99	113	131	*119*	95
Feb.	157	101	.	131	*121*	96
Mar.	160	104	.	132	*124*	99
Apr.	162	105	117	133	*126*	101
May	165	105	.	134	*129*	102
June	168	106	.	135	*129*	103
July	184	106	120	136	*130*	103
Aug.	192	106	.	138	*131*	102
Sep.	195	106	.	140	*133*	102
Oct.	200	107	121	137	*136*	104
Nov.	199	107	.	137	*140*	104
Dec.	202	107	.	136	*143*	105
1952 : Jan.	...	108	...	...	...	105
				Food group		
1937	.	.	58	11	.	64
1946	.	.	94	52	.	.
1947	.	79	98	76	.	.
1948	**100** [4]	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100** [4]
1949	136	95	101	103	**100**	106
1950	146	92	118	118	*111*	100
1951	179	99	...	126	*128*	112
1950 : Dec.	162	93	.	123	*118*	99
1951 : Jan.	160	95	127	125	*120*	101
Feb.	155	96	.	125	*121*	102
Mar.	154	98	.	125	*123*	108
Apr.	154	98	129	125	*125*	109
May	157	97	.	125	*129*	112
June	162	98	.	125	*127*	115
July	198	98	130	126	*127*	115
Aug.	199	98	.	127	*127*	113
Sep.	199	99	.	126	*129*	112
Oct.	201	101	131	126	*132*	115
Nov.	201	102	.	131	*136*	117
Dec.	208	102	.	130	*139*	119
1952 : Jan.	...	103	...	...	...	120

[1] Prior to 1950 : 32 towns. Excl. rent. [3] Incl. direct taxes. [4] July-Dec.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	Europe *(cont.)*					
	Greece	Iceland	Ireland	Italy	Luxembourg	Netherlands
Town or no. of localities	Athens	Reykjavik	120	62 [1]	9	9 [2]
			All groups			
1937	0.4	.	54	.	33 [3]	49 [4]
1946	59	91	92	58	90	93 [5]
1947	71	98	98 [6]	94	94	97
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100** [7]	**100**
1949	115	102	101	101	106	**100** [8]
1950	124	163 [9]	102	100	110	*109*
1951	139	200	110	...	119	...
1950 : Dec.	131	181	.	103	114	*113*
1951 : Jan.	133	182	.	105	113	*113*
Feb.	136	185	104	107	115	*115*
Mar.	142	188	.	107	117	*117*
Apr.	139r	192	.	110	120	*122*
May	143	194	110	110	120	*122*
June	139	200	.	111	120	*121*
July	137	202	.	111	121	*122*
Aug.	137	205	112	111	121	*121*
Sep.	137	211	.	111	121r	*121*
Oct.	142	214	.	111	120	*121*
Nov.	143	215	114	112	120	*120*
Dec.	144	215	.	...	120	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	...	120	...
			Food group			
1937	0.3	.	53	.	35	43
1946	54	100	90	59	88	85 [5]
1947	66	104	97 [6]	96	94	92
1948	**109**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100** [7]	**100**
1949	116	101	100	100	111	**100** [8]
1950	122	152 [9]	100	97	119	*111*
1951	130	193	107	...	...	...
1950 : Dec.	124	173	.	99	122	*112*
1951 : Jan.	127	176	.	100	121	*113*
Feb.	128	177	100	100	121	*112*
Mar.	135	181	.	100	121	*113*
Apr.	130	184	.	103	123	*122*
May	136	186	107	104	121	*124*
June	130	192	.	105	122	*123*
July	127	194	.	105	125	*127*
Aug.	127	197	109	104	126	*124*
Sep.	127	207	.	104	125	*124*
Oct.	131	210	.	104	...	*125*
Nov.	131	207	110	105	...	*123*
Dec.	132	208	.	...	...	...
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	...	...	...

[1] Towns of over 50,000 inhabitants. [2] Prior to 1949 : 6 towns. [3] Excl. rent. [4] Incl. direct taxes. [5] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [6] From Aug. 1947 : interim index, excl. misc., spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [7] New series, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [8] New series. [9] Mar.-Dec. ; new series spliced by I.L.O. to old series.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(cont.)*

Country	Europe *(cont.)*							
	Norway	Poland	Portugal	Saar	Spain	Sweden		Switzerland
Town or no. of localities	53 [1]	Warsaw	Lisbon	Saarbrücken	50	95		34
				All groups				
						[2]	[3]	[4]
1937	61	.	.	.	.	64	60	61
1946	100	74	.	.	80	93	93	93 [5]
1947	101	96	.	.	94	96	94	97
1948	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	100	104	.	109	105	102	102	99
1950	105	113	.	112	117	103	103	98 [4]
1951	122	...	.	137	...	...	120	102
1950 : Dec.	112	116	.	119	124	150	107	99
1951 : Jan.	113	114	.	122	126	.	111	100
Feb.	114	115	.	125	128	.	113	100
Mar.	115	115	.	127	129	115	117	100
Apr.	120	114	.	131	128	.	119	101
May	122	...	.	132	128	.	120	102
June	124	...	.	134	128	120	121	102
July	126	...	.	134	127	.	122	103
Aug.	126	...	.	136	128	.	122	103
Sep.	126	...	.	141	128	123	124	104
Oct.	126	...	.	148	128	.	125	104
Nov.	126	...	.	153	...	.	126	105
Dec.	127	...	.	155	...	125	126	105
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	158	...	.	...	...
				Food group				
				[6]				
1937	63	.	.	.	.	60	60	57
1946	104	81	101	.	82	88	90	91 [5]
1947	103	98	103	.	97	93	93	97
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	99	106	104	102	104	101	101	99
1950	108	116	104	105	116	103	103	100
1951	127	...	103	125	...	...	121	103
1950 : Dec.	117	116	103	108	124	105	107	103
1951 : Jan.	117	115	105	111	127	.	111	102
Feb.	118	117	106	113	129	.	113	102
Mar.	120	116	105	114	130	117	117	102
Apr.	126	114	104	117	128	.	119	102
May	128	...	99	118	128	.	121	102
June	129	...	101	120	127	119	120	103
July	131	...	100	121	127	.	120	103
Aug.	131	...	103	120	127	.	122	104
Sep.	130	...	104	125	127	124	125	105
Oct.	130	...	104	133	127	.	126	105
Nov.	131	...	104	138	...	.	127	105
Dec.	133	...	103	141	...	127	128	105
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	145	...	.	...	...

[1] Prior to 1950 : 31 towns. [2] Weights based on family budget enquiries. [3] Weights based on estimated aggregate consumption. [4] Prior to Mar. 1950 : excl. misc. [5] New series, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [6] Incl. heat and light.

CONSUMER PRICE INDICES *(concl.)*

Country	Europe *(concl.)*		Oceania			
	Turkey	United Kingdom	Australia	Fiji	Hawaii	New Zealand
Town or no. of localities	Istanbul	200 [1]	30	Suva	Honolulu	21 [2]
			All groups			
1937	.	*76*	67	.	.	70
1946	99	**100**	88	81	84	90
1947	100	94 [3]	92	92	95	93
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	110	103	109	101	97	102 [4]
1950	104	106	120	103	95	107
1951	...	115	...	112	101	119
1950 : Dec.	102	107		.	96	
1951 : Jan.	103	108		107	.	
Feb.	104	109	132	.	.	113
Mar.	103	110		.	100	
Apr.	102	112		107	.	
May	101	115	142	.	.	118
June	101	116		.	100	
July	102	117		112	.	
Aug.	101	118	150	.	.	122
Sep.	101	119		.	101	
Oct.	...	119		121	.	
Nov.	...	119	...	.	.	125
Dec.	...	120		.	102	
1952 : Jan.	...	...	.	...	.	.
			Food group			
1937	.	*82*	68	.	.	69
1946	99	**100**	83	78	78	83
1947	97	94 [3]	88	92	93	89
1948	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1949	112	106	111	104	96	103 [4]
1950	106	114	125	107	91	113
1951	...	...	...	114	99	130
1950 : Dec.	103	116	137	.	94	122
1951 : Jan.	103	118r	140	110	97	121
Feb.	104	118	143	.	98	120
Mar.	103	119	145	.	100	121
Apr.	101	121	150	108	99	125
May	100	125	152	.	97	127
June	99	126	158	.	98	129
July	100	130	...	112	99	131
Aug.	99	130	...	.	99	133
Sep.	101	131	...	.	99	134
Oct.	...	132	...	126	100	135
Nov.	...	133	...	.	101	139
Dec.	...	...	...	.	102	143
1952 : Jan.	...	...	...	...	102	...

[1] Since Aug. 1947 : food prices collected in 200 towns, other items priced in 12-150 towns. Prior to 1947 : food prices collected in 509 towns, other items priced in 24-509 towns. [2] Prior to 1949 : 25 towns. [3] July-Dec. ; interim index. [4] New series, spliced by I.L.O. to old series.

Wages

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month

Date	Africa	America											
	Egypt	Canada		Argentina [1]	Colombia [2]			Dominican Republic [3]			Mexico	
	Mi., man., constr., trp., serv.	Mi., man., constr. trp., serv.	Mi., man., cstr.,com., trp., ser.	Mi., man., serv. [4]	Mi., man., constr., transp., serv.			Man., transp., serv.			Mi., man., constr. transp.	
	Week	Hour	Week	Month	Day			Day			Hour	Week
	M. W.	M. W.		M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	
	Earnings [4]	Rates [5]	Earnings [6]	Earnings	Earnings			Earnings			Earnings [5]	
	Piastres	Index	$	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos
1937	.	49	.	111.2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1946	124.0	79	.	186.8	2.86	1.56	2.56	.	.	.	1.17	53.44
1947	133.0	89	36.19	264.2	3.41	1.91	3.08	1.95	1.12	1.79	1.28	58.90*
1948	146.5	**100**	40.06	360.5	...	...	...	2.16	1.18	1.96	...	...
1949	145.0	104	42.96	490.5	...	...	...	2.13	1.23	1.95	...	...
1950	...	...	44.84	594.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1950: Sep.	.	.	45.88	606.9	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.
Dec.	...	.	45.27	1115.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	.	.
1951: Mar.	.	.	48.43	...	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.
June	...	.	50.17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	.	.
Sep.	.	.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	110 (1949)	.	2 083 (1950)	956 (1949)	.	.	13 (1947)	3.08	0.9	4.6 (May 1950)	68 (1939)	

Date	America (concl.)	Asia				Europe			
	Peru	Ceylon	Japan	Philippines [7]		Belgium	Czechoslovakia		
	Agr., mi., man., constr., transp., com., serv.	.	Mi., man., com., transp.,etc.	Man., constr., transp.		Man., constr., transp. [8]	Mi., man., constr.		
	Day	Hour	Month	Day		Hour	Hour		
	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W		M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.
	Earnings	Rates	Earnings [6]	Rates		Earnings	Rates		
	Soles	Index	Yen	Pesos	Pesos	Index	Kčs.	Kčs.	Kčs.
1937	.	.	.	.	.	27	..	.	.
1946	5.03	89	.	6.73	4.53	87[8]	11.09	8.70	10.49
1947	6.18	94	1 950	7.54	4.66	91	11.39	9.09	10.81
1948	...	**100**	5 137	7.47	4.69	**100**	...	...	10.93
1949	...	102	8 019	7.61	4.90	105	...	...	...
1950	...	118	9 689	7.60	4.29	110	...	...	...
1950: Sep.	.	118	9 571	7.63	4.12	110	...	...	...
Dec.	.	140	13 413	7.58	4.13	114	...	...	...
1951: Mar.	.	...	10 346	7.23	4.50	116	...	...	...
June	.	...	12 433	...	...	121	...	...	...
Sep.	.	...	11 657	...	...	123	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

[1] Series calculated by I.L.O. by dividing total wages paid per month by average employment in the same month. [2] Bogotá. [3] Ciudad Trujillo; annual figures: averages May and Nov. [4] Annual figures: averages of Jan. and July, except 1942 (July). [5] Oct. of each year. [6] Incl. salaried employees. [7] Manila. [8] Dec.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(cont.)*

Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month

Date	Europe *(cont.)*									
	Denmark				France			Ireland		
	Man., constr., com., transp., etc.				Man., constr.[6], com., transp.[6] [7]			Mi., man., constr., transp., serv.		
	Hour				Hour			Hour		
	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.[3]
	Earnings [1]				Rates			Earnings [3]		
	Øre	Øre	Øre	Øre	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1937	158	133	88	135	.	.	.	1 2.0	0 7.9	0 11.9
1946	286	247	174	249	32.5	25.9	30.6	1 8.2	1 0.2	1 5.3
1947	304	259	186	263	45.1	38.3	43.2	2 0.1	1 2.2	1 8.6
1948	330	278	202	284	68.2	59.1	65.5	2 2.6	1 3.4	1 10.7
1949	345	290	212	297	76.2	66.3	73.5	2 3.7	1 4.2	1 11.6
1950	361	304	224	312	84.1	73.1	81.1	...	...	...
1950: Sep.	364	307	226	314	87.1	77.3	84.4	.	.	.
Dec.	374	313	229	321	92.0	81.0	88.9	.	.	.
1951: Mar.	376	317	233	325	97.2	85.5	93.9	.	.	.
June	392	334	244	340	105.8	92.9	102.2	.	.	.
Sep.	...	...	...	...	119.1	104.5	115.0	.	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	79 (30 June 1950)	115	60	254	3 320 (1 Jan. 1951)	1 260	4 580	.	.	186 (1949)

Date	Europe *(cont.)*									
	Ireland *(cont.)*			Luxembourg	Netherlands [4]	Saar		Sweden		
	Mi., man., constr. transp., serv.			Mi., man., constr., etc.	Mi., man., constr., trp., serv.	Man., constr., serv.[6]		Mi., man., constr., com., transp.		
	Week			Hour	Day	Hour	Week	Hour		
	M.	W.	M. W.[3]	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.		M.	W.	M. W.[5]
	Earnings [3]			Earnings	Earnings	Earnings		Earnings		
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	Fr.	Fl.	Fr.	Fr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1937	51 9	28 11	43 7	.	3.52	.	.	1.29	0.77	1.15
1946	76 6	44 3	64 5	21.03	5.81	.	.	2.15	1.38	1.98
1947	91 1	51 5	76 5	22.78	6.52	.	.	2.45	1.62	2.27
1948	100 4	55 11	84 5	25.40	6.78	.	.	2.67	1.79	2.47
1949	105 5	59 0	88 4	26.74	6.93	83.71	3 904	2.75	1.87	2.56
1950	...	...	...	...	...	90.79	4 276	...	...	...
1950: Sep.	.	.	.	.	.	94.53	4 445	.	.	.
Dec.	.	.	.	.	.	100.13	4 666	.	.	.
1951: Mar.	.	.	.	.	.	...	...	.	.	.
June	.	.	.	.	.	...	...	.	.	.
Sep.	.	.	.	.	.	...	...	.	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	186 (1949)	.	1 954 (1949)	116 (1950)		490	84 (1949)	607

[1] Excl. overtime. Monthly figures: averages for quarter ending in month indicated. [2] Incl. juveniles. [3] One week in Oct. of each year. [4] Insurance statistics (accidents) incl. salaried employees. [5] Incl. foremen and juveniles.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(cont.)*

Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month

Date	Europe *(cont.)*											
	Sweden *(concl.)*			Switzerland [1]								
	Mi.[2], man., com., transp.			For., mi., man., constr., com., transp.								
	Week			Hour				Week				
	M.	W.	M. W. [3]	M. skil., semi-skill.	M. unskil.	W.	M. W.	M. skil., semi-skill.	M. unskil.	W.	M. W.	
	Earnings			Earnings [3]								
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.	Index	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.	Index	
1937	61.48	35.40	54.75	1.36	1.07	0.70	50	67.05	53.60	33.75	50	
1946	100.92	63.30	92.56	2.23	1.88	1.34	87	110.75	95.20	64.10	87	
1947	...	...	...	2.42	2.04	1.49	94	119.80	103.00	70.80	95	
1948	...	...	...	2.56	2.15	1.58	**100**	126.55	108.25	75.00	**100**	
1949	...	...	...	2.60	2.19	1.62	102	127.65	109.45	76.95	101	
1950	...	...	...	2.62	2.20	1.63	102	128.60	109.75	77.20	102	
1950: Sep.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	
Dec.	.	.	.	2.62	2.20	1.62	102	129.20	110.70	76.60	102	
1951: Mar.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	
June	.	.	.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Sep.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	
Persons cov. (thousands)	469	91	592	45	37	13	95	45	37	13	95	
	(1946)			(1950)								

Date	Europe *(concl.)*									Oceania		
	United Kingdom									Australia		
	Agr., mi., man., constr., com., transp., etc.	Mi., man., constr., transp., serv.[4]								Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.		
	Hour	Hour [5]			Week [6]					Hour		
	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W. [7]	M.	W.	M. W. [7]			M.	W.	
	Rates [8]	Earnings								Rates		
	Index	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.			s. d.	s. d.	
1937	*58*	.	.	.	.	.	.			2 0	1 1	
1946	**100**	2 6.4	1 6.4	2 2.2	120 9	65 3	101 0			2 9¼	1 8¼	
1947	96 [9]	2 9.0	1 8.1	2 4.7	128 1	69 7	108 2			3 1	1 11	
1948	**100**	2 11.4 [10]	1 9.5 [10]	2 7.1 [10]	137 11 [10]	74 6 [10]	117 4 [10]			3 8¾	2 4¼	
1949	102	3 0.6	1 10.7	2 8.2	142 8	78 9	121 9			4 0¾	2 7½	
1950	106	3 1.9	1 11.6	2 9.3	150 5	82 7	128 0			4 6¾	3 0½	
1950: Sep.	104	3 1.9	1 11.6	2 9.3	150 5	82 7	128 0			4 5¼	2 11¼	
Dec.	106	.	.	.	.	.	.			5 0	3 6¼	
1951: Mar.	109	3 4.1	2 1.10	2 11.3	160 2	87 4	136 2			5 2¾	3 7¼	
June	111	.	.	.	.	.	.			5 4½	3 9¾	
Sep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...			5 8¾	3 11	
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	.	6 500 (Oct. 1950)	.	.	6 500 (Oct. 1950)			.	.	

[1] Earnings of wage earners involved in accidents; adults. [2] Incl. foremen and juveniles. [3] Monthly figures: averages for half-year ending in month indicated. [4] Excl. coal mines and railways. Manual workers. [5] Annual figures: Oct. of each year, except 1943 to 1945: July. Monthly figures: Apr. and Oct. of each year. [6] Annual figures: Oct. of each year, except 1940 to 1945: July. Monthly figures: Apr. and Oct. of each year. [7] Incl. juveniles. [8] Manual workers. Annual figures: 31 Dec. of each year. [9] Scope of series enlarged. [10] Owing to changes in industrial classification, Oct. 1948 and later figures are not strictly comparable with those for earlier dates.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(concl.)*

Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month

Date	Oceania *(concl.)*								
	Australia *(concl.)*				Hawaii	New Zealand			
	Mi., man., constr., com., transp.[a], serv.		Agr., mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.		Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.	Mi.[a], man., constr.[a], com., transp.[a], serv.		Agr., mi., man., constr., transp., serv.	
	Week		Week		Week	Hour		Week	
	M.	W.	M.[2]		M. W.	M.	W.	M.[1]	W.[1]
	Rates[1]		Earnings[3]		Earnings[3]	Rates			
	s. d.	s. d.	£A.		$	s. d.	s. d.	Index	Index
1937	89 10	47 10	.		.	2 4.37	1 3.17	65	58
1946	122 8	76 5	6.51		45.20	3 2.99	1 11.66	90	87
1947	133 2	83 5	7.10		50.66	3 4.79	2 0.98	94	91
1948	149 0	94 9	8.12		51.64	3 7.07	2 3.30	**100**	**100**
1949	162 6	105 5	8.94		...	3 9.66	2 5.50	106	108
1950	180 7	121 4	10.13		...	4 0.57	...	113	...
1950: Sep.	177 9	117 10	10.22		...	.	.	115	.
Dec	199 11	140 5	11.16		...	.	.	115	.
1951: Mar.	207 4	144 1	11.33		...	.	.	128 r	.
June	214 11	151 2	...		...	.	.	128 r	.
Sep.	...	...	...		...	.	.	131	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	.		.	228 (1945)	41	.	.

[1] Adults. [2] Incl. salaried employees and 45 per cent. of females. [3] Monthly figures: averages for quarter ending in month indicated.

Hours of Work

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF HOURS OF WORK

Date	Africa	America			Asia		Europe
	Egypt [1]	United States	Argentina [2]	Mexico [3]	Japan		France
	Mi., man., constr., serv.	Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.	Mi., man., serv. [4]	Mi., man., constr., transp.	Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv., etc. [4]	Mi., man., com., transp., etc. [5]	Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.
1937	.	.	.	.	.	.	40.7
1946	51.0	43.0	103	45.60	.	.	44.0
1947	51.5	42.3	102	45.96	50.6 [6]	.	45.0
1948	51.5	41.6	100	...	50.4	188.5 [7]	45.0
1949	51.5	40.9	99	...	49.0	.	44.5
1950	...	40.7	100	...	49.9	189.3	45.0
1950: June	...	41.8	103	.	51.9	191.7	45.1
Sep.	.	37.1	107	.	50.3	193.6	45.3
Dec.	...	41.2	96	.	50.6	197.8	45.0
1951: Mar.	.	...	...	.	49.5	188.7	45.2
June	...	...	...	.	51.6	197.1	45.2
Sep.	.	...	...	.	49.0	194.0	45.3
Persons cov. (thousands)	110 (1949)	50 033 (1950)	956 (1949)	68 (1939)	18 050 (1950)	4 479 (Dec. 1950)	7 490 (1950)

Date	Europe *(concl.)*			Oceania			
	Ireland [8]	Sweden [9]	United Kingdom [10]	Australia [11]		New Zealand [12]	
	Mi., man., constr., transp., serv.	Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.	Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. [13]	Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv.		Mi., man., constr., com., transp., etc.	
				M.	W.	M.	W.
1937	43.9	46.9	.	45.06	44.59	41.10	41.39
1946	44.7	47.0	46.2	43.59	44.03	40.50	40.11
1947	44.6	...	45.2	43.57	44.03	40.06	40.00
1948	44.6	...	45.3 [14]	39.96	40.00	39.98	40.00
1949	44.9	...	45.4	39.96	40.00	39.90	40.00
1950	...	...	46.1	39.96	40.00	39.90	40.00
1950: June	.	.	.	39.96	40.00	.	.
Sep.	.	.	46.1	39.96	40.00	.	.
Dec.	.	.	.	39.96	40.00	.	.
1951: Mar.	.	.	46.3	39.96	40.00	.	.
June	.	.	.	39.96	40.00	.	.
Sep.	.	.	.	39.95	40.00	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	186 (1949)	.	6 500 (Oct. 1950)	.	.	.	.

[1] Annual figures: average of Jan. and July, except 1942 (July). [2] Per month. Index calculated by I.L.O. from the indices of total hours worked and average employment per month. [3] Oct. of each year. [4] Incl. proprietors and family workers. [5] Per month, incl. salaried employees. [6] Dec. [7] Oct. [8] One week in Oct. of each year,. [9] Nov., except 1937: July; 1938 and 1939: averages of semi-annual figures; and 1946: May. [10] Manual workers. Annual figures: Oct. of each year, except 1943 to 1945: July. Monthly figures: Apr. and Oct. of each year. [11] Normal hours; June of each year. [12] Normal hours. [13] Excl. coal mines and railways. [14] Owing to changes in industrial classification, Oct. 1948 and later figures are not strictly comparable with those for earlier dates.

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I.L.O. Publications

Documents of Regional Conferences.

Fifth Conference of American States Members of the I.L.O., Rio de Janeiro, April 1952. Report I: *Application and Supervision of Labour Legislation in Agriculture.* Geneva, 1952. 56 pp. 50 cents; 3s.

— Report III: *Methods of Remuneration of Salaried Employees.* Geneva, 1952. 85 pp. 50 cents; 3s.

The first of these reports surveys the legislation applicable to agricultural employment in the Americas under the following headings: recruitment and placement, wages, employment of women and children, and social security. The arrangements for enforcing this legislation and the difficulties which arise are then discussed under the same headings.

The report on the remuneration of salaried employees first analyses the concepts of "salaried employee" and "minimum wage". It then describes the methods in use for fixing minimum wages and the basic remuneration, and the provisions governing additional remuneration and protection of wages and salaries. The last two chapters are devoted to a comparison of the status and standards of remuneration of salaried employees and manual workers.

Documents of I.L.O. Committees.

Metal Trades Committee, Fourth Session, Geneva, 1952. Report II: *Human Relations in Metal Working Plants.* Geneva, 1952. 119 pp. 75 cents; 4s. 6d.

This report is devoted to an aspect of industrial relations—that of the day-to-day relations between workers, supervisors and management in an undertaking—which now receives greatly increased attention and which is particularly important in the metal trades. After discussing the factors underlying the new outlook on relations in industry and the new insight obtained as a result of research and pioneer experiments, the report analyses current thought regarding the policies and practices which should be adopted to improve these relations. In conclusion, there is a list of points for discussion by the next meeting of the Committee.

Studies and Reports.

New Series, No. 29: *Labour Policies in the West Indies.* Geneva, 1952. 377 pp. $2.25; 13s. 6d.

After outlining the pre-war economic and social background, and wartime and post-war trends in the West Indies, this study describes manpower policies and problems, the machinery of industrial relations, the wage structure and hours of work, the regulation of female and child labour, social security and the progress of labour legislation. A final chapter draws attention to some major problems of labour policy in the area and to the machinery through which the I.L.O. can provide appropriate services. There are a number of statistical appendices.

Publications of the United Nations and Other Intergovernmental Organisations

Council of Europe.

Full Employment Objectives in Relation to the Problem of European Co-operation. Strasbourg, 1951. 42 pp.

This report, prepared by the Secretariat-General of the Council of Europe in consultation with a number of outside experts, applies the recommendations of the United Nations experts on national and international measures for full employment to the special conditions of the member States of the Council of Europe. This re-interpretation was undertaken with special reference to the declared aim of the Council of Europe to develop closer economic ties between its members.

The report recommends that each member State should accept objectively defined obligations to maintain full employment, price stability and stability in mutual trade relations, and to accelerate the economic development of underdeveloped areas. It outlines an international code of behaviour for meeting balance-of-payments disequilibria without frustrating economic stability. It recommends the establishment of a European Investment Bank to accelerate the economic development of underdeveloped countries and of a European Advisory Board, consisting of a small number of independent experts, charged with the task of examining the policies of member States and of commenting on the extent to which they are fulfilling the proposed national and international obligations.

Other Publications

General.

CANADIAN DEPARTMENT OF CITIZENSHIP AND IMMIGRATION, Citizenship Branch. *The Canadian Scene.* Ottawa, Edmond Cloutier, King's Printer, 1951. 96 pp.

FORCADA MARTÍNEZ, Guadalupe. *Instrumentos internacionales del trabajo.* Tesis para obtener el título de licenciado en derecho de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México. México, 1951. 90 pp.

FOREIGN POLICY ASSOCIATION. *Italy,* by Massimo SALVADORI; *Italy's Postwar Foreign Policy,* by Michele CANTARELLA and Massimo SALVADORI. Headline Series, No. 87. New York, 1951. 62 pp. 35 cents.

NATIONAL BANK OF AUSTRALASIA LIMITED. *Australia—Its Resources and Development.* Melbourne, London, 1951. 91 pp.

OPIE, Redvers, BALLANTINE, Joseph W., BIRDSALL, Paul, MUTHER, Jeannette E., THURBER, Clarence E. *The Search for Peace Settlements.* Washington, D.C., The Brookings Institution, 1951. xvii+366 pp. $4.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION SERVICE. *Program-Making in Unesco, 1946-1951.* A Study in the Processes of International Administration. By Charles S. ASCHER. Special Publication No. 59. Chicago, Public Administration Clearing House, 1951. ix+84 pp. $2.50.

UNIVERSIDAD MAYOR DE SAN FRANCISCO XAVIER DE CHUQUISACA, Bolivia. *Declaraciones fundamentales de los derechos humanos.* Texto de trascendentales

documentos jurídicos sobre reconocimiento de atributos de la persona, aparecidos en el curso de la evolución social. Publication No. 15. Sucre, Imprenta Universitaria, 1950. 113 pp.

WIGFORSS, Ernst. *Minnen.* Vol. II : 1914-1932. Stockholm, Tidens Förlag, 1951. 390 pp.

This volume of the memoirs of the former Minister of Finance is a valuable aid to an understanding of Swedish political ideas and personalities (especially within the Social Democratic Party) since the outbreak of the first world war.

Social and Economic Questions.

CHESTER, D. N. (editor). *Lessons of the British War Economy.* National Institute of Economic and Social Research, Economic and Social Studies, X. Cambridge University Press, 1951. xii+260 pp. 22s. 6d.

This collection of essays on wartime administration by economists and other university teachers who entered government service during the war provides a useful study by professional students of public administration. The subjects covered include the central machinery for economic policy, the over-all allocation of resources, rationing, the use and development of national income and expenditure estimates, and the administration of a number of important direct controls.

COMMISSARIAT GÉNÉRAL DU PLAN DE MODERNISATION ET D'EQUIPEMENT. *Quatre ans d'exécution du plan de modernisation et d'équipement de l'Union française.* Réalisations 1947-50 et programme 1951. Paris, 1951. 376 pp.

A summary of the results obtained and of future prospects after four years of activity, based on a detailed statement of the achievements in each industry since 1947. It shows how the Monnet Plan made the Schuman Plan possible and how the organisation of a European community must complete the modernisation of France. As M. Monnet says in his preface, "we must now ensure that these increased and modernised means are used to expand the economy and that this expansion helps social progress by facilitating a more just distribution of national income among those who contribute to creating it and a general raising of the standard of living".

CORPORACIÓN DE FOMENTO DE LA PRODUCCIÓN. *Geografía económica de Chile.* 2 vols. Santiago, 1950. xxx+428 and xvii+ 545 pp.

DÉPARTEMENT FÉDÉRAL DE L'ECONOMIE PUBLIQUE, Commission d'Etude des Prix. *La question des réserves de crise avec privilège fiscal.* Berne, Editions de la *Feuille officielle suisse du commerce*, 1951. 38 pp.

ELLSWORTH, P. T. *The International Economy : Its Structure and Operation.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950. xxi+922 pp. $5.50.

The author has attempted to combine history, theory and factual data so as to give a realistic picture of the development of the international economy. Part I describes the mercantilist system and the influences leading to its breakdown and the introduction of economic liberalism. Part II sets forth the theory of international trade as an explanation of what determines the prices of internationally traded goods and the localisation of production. Part III examines the gold standard and its adjustment mechanism in the nineteenth century setting. Part IV analyses the trends of international economic relations from 1870 to the second world war, with special reference to the growth of nationalism and protectionism. Part V deals with foreign exchange under inconvertible paper currencies, exchange control, bilateral trade and other forms of trade control. The final part discusses present international economic problems, post-war international disequilibrium, European economic recovery, the economic development of underdeveloped areas, the International Monetary Fund, the provisions of the International Trade Organization Charter, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

GUATRI, Luigi. *Il costo di produzione—l'efficienza.* Publicazioni dell'Istituto di Economia Aziendale, Istituto Universitario di Economia e Commercio di Venezia, Series III, No. 8. Milan, Antonino Giuffrè, 1951. xx+350 pp. 1,500 lire.

— *La Diversificazione dei prezzi—fondamenti economici.* Publicazioni dell'Istituto di Economia Aziendale, Istituto Universitario di Economia e Commercio di Venezia, Series III, No. 9. Milan, Antonino Giuffrè, 1951. xvi+270 pp. 1,000 lire.

HANSEN, Bent. *A Study in the Theory of Inflation.* London, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1951. xiii+262 pp. 18s.

HARRIS, Seymour E. *The Economics of Mobilization and Inflation.* New York, W. W. Norton & Company Inc., 1951. xii+308 pp. $4.50.

In this (his twenty-fourth) book, devoted mainly to the economics of war and mobilisation, the author deals with the special problems arising from " the peculiar state of war and non-war, the resulting difficulties of allocating resources, the need of mobilising after ten years of inflation and from a high level of employment, the peculiar problems raised by the divided world, the shortages of materials, the large national debt outstanding with relatively small reductions since 1945, the almost insoluble manpower problems, the increased influence of well-organised groups not averse to inflation, the limited success of World War II controls from the perspective of 1950-51, the special obstacles to adequate tax programmes (*e.g.*, the high level of taxes in 1950) and to required savings programmes (*e.g.*, the questions raised concerning fixed-interest securities by those who have become aware of ten years of steady inflation) ".

HART, Albert G., BROWN, E. Cary, and RASMUSSEN, H. F. *Financing Defense : Federal Tax and Expenditure Policies.* With Policy Recommendations by the Committee on Economic Stabilization. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1951. xiv+161 pp. $2.

This volume, the second in a series on how to protect and maintain the civilian economy in a period of defence mobilisation, concentrates on budget measures to finance the defence programme while avoiding serious inflation. The book contains eight chapters of factual findings and analysis by the authors, leading to a chapter of recommendations drawn up by a committee of four leading American economists —J. M. Clark, T. W. Schultz, A. Smithies and D. H. Wallace. The committee is particularly concerned to safeguard productive efficiency and work incentives, to keep the door of economic opportunity open and to keep economic policy adaptable for future changes. It therefore recommends a vigorous budget policy with a view to lightening the strain on direct price controls and hastening the time when they may be dispensed with.

INSTITUT NATIONAL DE LA STATISTIQUE ET DES ÉTUDES ÉCONOMIQUES, Direction de la Conjoncture et des Études Économiques. *Mémento Économique : l'Australie.* Mémentos Économiques, Series M 4. Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, 1951. 202 pp. 1,000 francs.

INSTITUT TECHNIQUE DES SALAIRES. *L'Économie de l'Entreprise à l'Étranger : Le calcul du profit par l'Ecole d'Amsterdam.* By Louis PERRIDON. Paris, 1951. 89 pp. 550 francs.

RAJGARHIA, Chand Mull. *Mining, Processing, and Uses of Indian Mica.* With special reference to the Bihar Mica Fields. Foreword by Cyril S. Fox. New York, Toronto, London, McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1951. xxi+388 pp. $8.

Deals in detail with the geological, mining and marketing aspects of the Bihar mica industry, which employs about 250,000 labourers and produces 60 per cent. of the Indian output of sheet mica, constituting approximately 75 per cent. of world production. The fact that mines are located in forest areas creates special

labour problems ; these and the problem of occupational diseases are briefly touched upon. Some useful statistics and a summary of the recommendations of the Mica Enquiry Committee are also given.

SCHUMPETER, Joseph A. *Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy.* 3rd edition. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950. xiv+431 pp. $4.50.

SCHWEIZERISCHES INSTITUT FÜR AUSLANDFORSCHUNG. *Vollbeschäftigung, Inflation und Planwirtschaft.* By A. AMONN, L. BAUDIN, C. BRESCIANI-TURRONI, H. S. ELLIS, W. EUCKEN, F. A. HAYEK, J. JEWKES, C. IVERSEN, F. A. LUTZ, W. RÖPKE, J. VINER. Preface by H. D. GIDEONSE. Erlenbach-Zürich, Eugen Rentsch Verlag, 1951. 362 pp. 15.50 francs.

In the preface the author expresses serious concern about recent trends in thinking on economic theory and policy, as crystallised in the well-known United Nations experts' report on national and international measures for full employment, which he sharply condemns. Professors Amonn, Baudin and Jewkes deal mainly with the more general problems of planned economy, collectivism and socialisation ; Professor Bresciani-Turroni submits a justification of post-war economic policy in Italy ; the late Professor Eucken deals with economic problems in Germany before and after the currency reform.

Professors Ellis and Lutz deal mainly with monetary and fiscal devices for a policy of economic stabilisation ; they believe that the efficacy of the former tends to be underrated and that that of fiscal measures is easily overestimated. Professor Viner's contribution consists in a reprint of his critical review of the above experts' report, first published in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, while the article by Professor Iversen on economic policy in Denmark serves as an illustration of the tremendous difficulties of avoiding inflation under conditions of full employment ; this problem had, in the author's opinion, been substantially underestimated by the experts. Finally, Professor Hayek presents a study of unemployment due to discrepancies between the pattern of expenditure and the distribution of the labour force.

SOCIÉTÉ COLONIALE ANVERSOISE. *Etude sur le marché de divers produits congolais en 1950.* Antwerp, 1950. 173 pp.

UNITED STATES CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, Foreign Commerce Department. *The Interdependence of the Latin American and U.S. Economies.* Washington, 1951. 28 pp.

— — *The Middle East and Its Development.* Washington, 1951. ii+24 pp.

WICKIZER, V. D. *Coffee, Tea and Cocoa.* An Economic and Political Analysis. Stanford University Press, California, 1951. xiii+497 pp. $5.

One of a group of studies on food, agriculture and the second world war. It analyses the development of the production, distribution and marketing of these three commodities in relation to political and economic trends during and since the war.

WIRTSCHAFTSWISSENSCHAFTLICHES INSTITUT DER GEWERKSCHAFTEN. *Notenbank in Umbau — föderal oder zentral ?* Cologne, Bund-Verlag G.m.b.H., 1951. 67 pp.

In 1945 the Occupation authorities undertook a large-scale decentralisation of the German economy and of the central banking system. At present discussion on the reorganisation of this system centres mainly around the question whether banking should again be centralised on a nation-wide basis or whether its present scattered pattern should be maintained. The above study by the Economic Institute of the German Federation of Trade Unions at Cologne expresses a strong preference for centralisation.

WRIGHT, David McCord. *Capitalism.* Economic Handbook Series. New York, Toronto, London, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951. xvii+246 pp. $3.25.

The author's view of capitalism is that the system is on balance the most workable method of obtaining continual growth, change, opportunity and democracy

in a relatively peaceful manner. He does not, however, overlook its weaknesses or take it for granted that capitalism would be workable everywhere and at any time. On the other hand, he considers many of the alleged defects of the system to be exaggerated or untrue, and thinks that a good deal of misunderstanding arises from a tendency to compare growing capitalism with stationary socialism.

Statistics.

DWYER, Paul S. *Linear Computations.* New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; London, Chapman & Hall, Limited, 1951. xi+344 pp. $6.50.

A comprehensive exposition of the mathematics underlying the problem of solving simultaneous linear equations, with numerical and abstract exercises and illustrations. The volume includes concise summaries of the uses of matrices and determinants, and a brief description of applications of linear computation to both linear and non-linear problems of statistical analysis.

ISTITUTO NAZIONALE PER L'ASSICURAZIONE CONTRO GLI INFORTUNI SUL LAVORO. *Notizie statistiche, 1947-1948.* Rome, 1951. 209 pp.

After a brief account of the benefit formulae (including the scale for assessing temporary incapacity) in Italian industrial accident insurance, the main part of this volume is devoted to detailed statistics for the years 1947 and 1948 and to a comparison with the figures for 1946 or in many cases with those for 1938 and 1939. Attention should be drawn to the frequency rates given under the subheadings of temporary incapacity, permanent incapacity and death, and also subdivided by major branches of industry.

LORENZ, Charlotte. *Forschungslehre der Sozialstatistik.* Vol. I: *Allgemeine Grundlegung und Anleitung.* Berlin, Duncker & Humblot, 1951. xvi+400 pp.

Gives a general survey of the theoretical problems involved in the application of statistical methods in the field of economic and social research, and an introduction to elementary statistical procedures.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment, Hours, and Earnings: State and Area Data.* Vol. I: *Area Employment, 1950.* Washington, 1950. xiii+80 pp.

Industrial Relations; Employers' and Workers' Organisations.

BURMA TRADE UNION CONGRESS, Education and Research Committee. *Policy Statement: General Programme and Constitution of the Burma Trade Union Congress.* Rangoon, 1951. 10 pp.

DAVEY, Harold W. *Contemporary Collective Bargaining.* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. xi+532 pp. $6.65.

FISCHER, Guido. *Christliche Gesellschaftsordnung und Sozialpraxis des Betriebes.* Heidelberg, F. H. Kerle Verlag, 1950. 188 pp. 8.60 marks.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANISATIONS AND GENERAL WORKERS' UNIONS. *Proceedings of the Section Conference for the Fine Pottery Industry,* held at Copenhagen from 23 to 25 October 1950. Amsterdam, 1951. 87 pp.

INTERNATIONAL LANDWORKERS' FEDERATION. *Report of the 11th Congress, Zurich, 3, 4 and 5 June, 1950.* Utrecht, 1951. 61 pp.

MILLER, Glenn W. *Problems of Labor.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1951. xvi+560 pp. $5.

A comprehensive text book dealing with labour in the United States. The author first considers briefly the basic attitudes of workers and employers, the

history and structure of labour organisation, and the extent and objectives of federal, State and local legislation or governmental control. He then discusses the manner in which unions, management and the Government have variously attempted to solve certain basic labour problems, including unemployment, old-age dependency, sickness and accident, wages and hours and other working conditions. The final chapters deal with collective bargaining and the settlement of labour disputes. The presentation of the material is complete and objective and the book is valuable as a basic reference work.

NEW YORK STATE C.I.O. COUNCIL. *1950-51 Annual.* New York, 1951. 216 pp

Labour Law.

LEGA, Carlo. *La libera professione.* Milan, Dott. A. Giuffrè, Editore, 1950. 384 pp. 1,320 lire.

An analysis of the rights and obligations of those exercising the liberal professions in Italy, whether in public or in private employment. An appendix deals with the problem of social security for members of the liberal professions.

MINISTERIO DE INDUSTRIAS Y TRABAJO, Uruguay. *Proyecto de Código del Trabajo.* Montevideo, Imprenta Nacional, 1951. 168 pp.

SCHMIDT, Walter. *Beamten-, Arbeits- und Tarifrecht.* Der Verwaltungsdienst, Schriftenreihe für die Ausbildung und Fortbildung der Dienstkräfte der öffentlichen Verwaltung, No. 12. Stuttgart, Cologne, W. Kohlhammer Verlag, 1950. 191 pp.

SYLVESTER, Hugo L. *Legislación del trabajo para empleados y obreros de la industria y del comercio.* 6th edition. Buenos Aires, Editorial Claridad, 1951. 287 pp.

Management.

BRITISH INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT. *National Scheme for Certificates and Diplomas in Management Studies (Handbook of Courses and Examinations).* London, 1951. 76 pp. 6s. 3d.

A handbook for the guidance of those concerned with providing courses in management studies and for intending students. It contains guide syllabuses and detailed conditions for courses provided under the national scheme administered jointly by the Ministry of Education, the Scottish Education Department, the Ministry of Education (Northern Ireland) and the British Institute of Management, in conjunction with appropriate professional bodies.

Manpower; Migration.

BERNARD, William S. (editor), ZELENY, Carolyn, MILLER, Henry (assistant editors). *American Immigration Policy—a Reappraisal.* Published under the sponsorship of the National Committee on Immigration Policy. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950. xx+341 pp. $4.

A comprehensive study on American immigration policy, with material authenticated by numerous statistical tables. The appraisal of American immigration policy is logical and clear, and a concise history of American policy in this field is added. The appendices present basic material for further study.

BUNDESMINISTERIUM FÜR ARBEIT, Federal Republic of Germany. *Die Arbeiter und Angestellten nach Beruf und Alter sowie die Lehrlingshaltung in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland am 31. Oktober 1950.* Ergebnisse einer Sondererhebung der Arbeitsämter. Bonn, 1950. 75 pp.

Analyses the results of an enquiry carried out by the employment offices to obtain recent and uniform data on age structure for the use of vocational guidance

bureaux in prepared detailed plans for school-leavers in the coming years. The last enquiry of this kind was made for the whole of Germany in June 1938, and one of the statistical tables of the present study makes a comparison of the figures for 1938 and those for 1951. The 1950 enquiry included all classes of worker, both employed and unemployed, and all apprentices working under an apprenticeship contract. Figures were obtained for the unemployed and employed in each age group and each occupation, so as to reveal the precise structure of unemployment at the time.

CENTRAL OFFICE OF INFORMATION. *Older People and Their Employment.* By Geoffrey THOMAS and Barbara OSBORNE. The Social Survey, Report Nos. 150/1 and 150/2. London, 1951. vi+36; iii+21 pp.

It is of vital importance to a country like Great Britain which is faced not only with a chronic shortage of manpower but also with the problem of an ageing population that its older people should be encouraged to remain at work as long as possible. If this aim is to be achieved, information is required as to the motives which influence elderly people to retire from or to continue at work as well as the reactions of employers to the employment of older workers. This survey, based on sample interviews of 1,950 men and 482 women of 55 to 74 years of age and 923 employers, was carried out at the request of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and provides much useful information on these and other related aspects of this problem.

EDDING, Friedrich. *The Refugees as a Burden, a Stimulus, and a Challenge to the West German Economy.* Publications of the Research Group for European Migration Problems, No. IV. Preface by Edgar SALIN. The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff, 1951. xii+57 pp. 3.50 guilders.

The author rejects emigration as a solution of Germany's economic problems; it would only further weaken the dangerously unbalanced structure of the age pyramid. Emigration of the expellee group would deprive Germany of a valuable population segment, as this group contains a greater proportion of young males than the resident population. After the war, as the standard of living began to rise, the expellees found it increasingly difficult to enter into German economic life on equal footing with the resident population. At the present time, expellees as a group do not repay in taxes their cost to the German States. In other ways, however, their presence constitutes an economic advantage; new techniques introduced by them and their drive to achieve their former standards add a stimulus to the economy. The author believes that the economic potential of the refugee group will only be fully realised when the economy is expanded; this requires continued high investment rates, the elimination of bottlenecks and expansion of the export market.

MYERS, Charles A., and SCHULTZ, George P. *The Dynamics of a Labor Market.* A Study of the Impact of Employment Changes on Labor Mobility, Job Satisfactions, and Company and Union Policies. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. x+219 pp.

A detailed analysis of the effect of the partial closing of a large textile mill in September 1948 on the life of a medium-sized New England community. This study, based on interviews with a random sample of the workers affected as well as with a number of employers and union officials, aims at discovering the social, economic and psychological consequences of a sudden transition from full employment to moderately heavy unemployment. Among the interesting subjects with which it deals are the methods by which displaced workers look for new jobs and the proportion which uses the state employment service, the extent to which they consider the drawing of unemployment benefit as a right regardless of any obligation on their side to accept work that is offered them, the ways in which unemployment affects industrial discipline and output of work, and its effects on the activities of union officials and on the rate of wages offered by employers. This sample, though limited in range to a single community, tends to prove yet again the diversity of human reactions to a single problem.

RISTELHUEBER, René. *Au secours des réfugiés.* L'œuvre de l'Organisation Internationale pour les Réfugiés (O.I.R.). Paris, Librairie Plon, 1951. viii+319 pp. 390 francs.

The history of refugee movements is traced from earliest times, with special emphasis on developments after the second world war and the role played by I.R.O. The development of international agreements and agencies concerning refugees in the inter-war period is treated at length, with a detailed account of events leading up to the post-war refugee problem. Much information is included on the composition of the refugee groups by nationality, religion, age, occupation, and their present distribution. Later chapters describe the organisation, operation and achievements of I.R.O., the temporary accommodation for refugees under I.R.O. supervision and their psychological reactions to this environment, the problems involved in moving the refugees to their final destination, and the difficulty of placing certain categories of refugees. The two final chapters discuss the problems remaining to be solved since the liquidation of the organisation.

Vocational Guidance.

FORRESTER, Gertrude. *Methods of Vocational Guidance.* Revised and enlarged edition. Boston, D.C. Heath and Company, 1951. x+463 pp.

This volume is intended to supplement the many books on the theory and philosophy of vocational guidance by describing methods of putting them into practice. It is addressed primarily to the teachers and administrators of those United States high schools which do not as yet employ guidance counsellors, and it therefore lays less emphasis upon counselling and testing techniques than upon ways of imparting information about occupations, which is considered to be an essential step in helping youth to prepare for a working life. Based largely upon the author's own experience, it contains many practical suggestions which should be of use to careers advisers generally.

OFFICE OF LAND COMMISSIONER OF WÜRTTEMBERG-BADEN, Education and Cultural Relations Branch. *Probleme des beruflichen Bildungswesens.* Eine internationale Stellungnahme. Bericht der Internationalen Tagung über berufliches Schulwesen, Stuttgart 1950, und Informationen über das Berufsschulwesen in verschiedenen Ländern. Edited by Harold ROBINSON, with Richard MÖNNIG, Karl STROHEKER, Robert WEFELMEYER. Stuttgart, Verlag Reinhold A. Müller, 1951. 144 pp.

The object of this well-arranged book is to help German and foreign educators to become acquainted and to give a brief description of the vocational education system in the different countries. It first gives a short report of the International Conference on Vocational Education attended by representatives from France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States in 1950. The speeches of these representatives on the organisation of vocational education in their countries and on related matters (curricula, moral and civic education, teacher training, teachers' associations) are reproduced; and the relation between vocational education and economic problems, domestic training and the training of adults are discussed. In the second part there is a series of recommendations for the development of vocational education, particularly in Germany.

The importance of the problems discussed in the first part and the detailed information on thirteen countries given in the second part make this book a valuable contribution to knowledge of the subject.

SAVIGNAT, Alain. *L'orientation professionnelle au service de la politique de l'emploi.* Strasbourg, Imprimerie Müh-Le Roux, 1951. 134 pp.

A study, based on wide documentation, showing the contribution vocational guidance can make to the realisation of full employment, and the trends in this direction to be observed in the political economy of various countries.

Wages ; Conditions of Work.

LIVENGOOD, Charles H., Jr. *The Federal Wage and Hour Law including the Fair Labor Standards Amendments of 1949 (July 1951).* Philadelphia, Committee on Continuing Legal Education of the American Law Institute, collaborating with the American Bar Association, 1951. xi+196 pp.

MARTINS CATHARINO, José. *Tratado Jurídico Do Salario.* Rio de Janeiro, Livraria Editora Freitas Bastos, 1951. 778 pp.

A descriptive and analytical study of the law on wages in Brazil and in other countries. After defining wages and the main types of payment, the author examines in detail legislation in a number of countries relating to the different categories of employee. This is followed by a discussion of the minimum wage, extra pay and bonuses, commissions, and the protection of the worker. It is unusual to find a book dealing with this class of problems which covers the ground so fully.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, Bureau of Labor Standards. *State and Federal Hours Limitations.* A Summary. Washington, 1950. ii+143 pp.

Rehabilitation.

AMERICAN FOUNDATION FOR THE BLIND, INC. *Adjustment Centers for the Blind.* Findings of the Spring Mill Conference, February 1951. New York, 1951. 80 pp.

Methods and programmes in use at United States adjustment centres for the blind after the last war varied so greatly that the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation and the American Foundation for the Blind sponsored jointly a " workshop " to co-ordinate the experience of persons actually working at adjustment centres. Recommendations are made on the following subjects : the organisation of an adjustment centre ; how to secure good staff-client relationships ; training the blind in travel techniques ; the demands of daily living ; the use of basic abilities ; case recording ; the terminology used at adjustment centres.

RENNIE, Thomas A. C., BURLING, Temple, and WOODWARD, Luther E. *Vocational Rehabilitation of Psychiatric Patients.* New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1950. v+133 pp.

The authors of this study are of opinion that 1-50 per cent. of convalescents and former patients of psychiatric clinics need social and professional rehabilitation treatment before they can make a successful return to the life of the community. Information is given on the organisation and cost of rehabilitation services for this class of patients, and also on the results obtained in the States of New York, Connecticut and Michigan.

Social Security.

BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION. *General Practice and the Training of the General Practitioner.* The Report of a Committee of the Association. London, 1950. 88 pp.

A Committee appointed to consider the post-graduate education of the general practitioner reviews in this report the evolution, nature, scope and requirements of general practice, and recommends a period of preparation for general practice of three years between registration and the assumption of independent general practice, the first year being spent as a paid trainee assistant to an established general practitioner, the second in specially designed and preferably residential hospital appointments, and the third in supplementary training at the choice of the trainee, including locum appointments.

The Committee is of opinion that the efficient organisation of practice enables practitioners to work with greater ease, more speed and less distraction from scientific work, and accordingly recommends more extensive use of competent non-medical staff such as secretaries, nurses and dispensers. It makes recommendations

for the continuous education of the general practitioner, including the organisation of national, regional and local courses, lectures, meetings and discussions, and association with hospitals. It proposes that each university or medical school should appoint a special committee, including representatives of all interested parties, for the purpose of organising and supervising the post-graduate education of general practitioners in all its aspects.

The fulfilment of its recommendations, the Committee concludes, will probably require a larger supply of doctors and a smaller number of patients in each doctor's care, and accordingly a readjustment of remuneration to ensure adequate income even with fewer patients.

CALIFORNIA LEGISLATURE, 1951 Regular Session. *Partial Report of Senate Interim Committee to the Senate on Workmen's Compensation Benefits.* Sacramento, Cal., 1951. 424 pp.

— *Second Partial Report.* Sacramento, 1951. 11 pp.

— *Final Report.* Sacramento, 1951. 13 pp.

FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY. Social Security Administration, Division of Research and Statistics. *Seventy-three Employee-Benefit Plans in the Petroleum Refining Industry.* By Joseph ZISMAN and Julia CARLSON. Bureau Memorandum No. 70. Washington, 1951. vii+264 pp.

— — *Nineteen Employee-Benefit Plans in the Airframe Industry.* Bureau Memorandum No. 71. Washington, 1951. iv+68 pp.

— — *The Social Security Act Amendments of 1950: Legislative History of the Coverage Provisions of the Federal Old-Age and Survivors Insurance Program.* By Wilbur J. COHEN. Washington, 1951. 85 pp.

— Library. *Temporary and Permanent Disability Benefits.* An Annotated Bibliography. Washington, 1951. 36 pp.

Living Conditions.

HAAR, Charles M. *Land Planning Law in a Free Society.* A Study of the British Town and Country Planning Act. Harvard Legal Studies. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press; London, Geoffrey Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1951. xiii+213 pp. $4.

This first-hand study of the operation of the United Kingdom Town and Country Planning Act of 1947 is intended primarily for the non-British reader. It presents a detailed discussion of the town and country planning machinery at the national, regional and local levels, and analyses the problems involved in the state supervision of land use, the nationalisation of development values and the public ownership of land. It also contains a final provocative chapter on tentative conclusions.

HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR THE FEDERATION OF MALAYA. *Report of the Committee on Malay Education.* Kuala Lumpur, G. A. Smith, Acting Government Printer, 1951. ix+88 pp.

KAMMER FÜR ARBEITER UND ANGESTELLTE IN NIEDERÖSTERREICH. *Die soziale Herkunft der niederösterreichischen Studierenden an Wiener Hochschulen.* By Hertha FIRNBERG and Gustav OTRUBA. Studien zur Sozial- und Wirtschaftsstruktur Niederösterreichs in Vergangenheit und Gegenwart, Vol. 3. Vienna, 1951. xix+110 pp.

WIX, Ethel. *The Cost of Living.* An Enquiry into the cost of essential requirements for African families living in Johannesburg, Pretoria and the Reef towns, August-December 1950. Johannesburg, South African Institute of Race Relations, 1951. iv+27 pp. 1s. 6d.

Agriculture.

ANGLO-AMERICAN COUNCIL ON PRODUCTIVITY. *Productivity in Farming.* Productivity Team Report. Report of a visit to the U.S.A. in 1950 of a Productivity Team representing the Farming Industry. London, New York, 1951. vii+48 pp. 2s. 6d.

INDIAN SOCIETY OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS. *Readings in Agricultural Economics.* Rehabilitation of Low-income Groups in Agriculture. Bombay, 1951. iv+288 pp. 9 rupees.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, Farmers Home Administration. "*The Land is Mine.*" From Tenancy to Farm Ownership. By Paul V. MARIS. Agriculture Monograph No. 8. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1950. vii+387 pp. $1.75.

An account of the Tenant Purchase Program of the United States Farmers' Home Administration (formerly the Farm Security Administration), which is designed to enable low-income farm families, including farm labourers, share-croppers and tenants, to become owners of farms. The monograph first discusses the background and major provisions of the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act of 1937, which launched the programme, and the way in which the latter was developed and policies formulated. There follows a description of procedures of selecting prospective purchasers, getting families settled on the land, the provision of credit, and the role of the local committees in the programme. There is also a section reviewing the attitude of borrowers to the programme and finally an evaluation of its achievements, and recommendations for the future.

The most interesting and original and at the same time the key feature of the Tenant Purchase Program is the institution of supervised credit and the joint drawing up by the borrower and the local farm supervisor of a complete farm and home plan, which lays down in detail the cropping and livestock organisation of the farm, including the production and preserving of produce for home consumption. It is largely because of this feature that the repayment record of the borrowers has been so good. A full description of this procedure is given with examples of the improvements in living standards from which borrowers have benefited.

The most important consideration for the future, according to the author, is the possibility of an expansion of the programme—in the 13 years of its history covered by the book 60,000 secured loans, totalling $400 million have been made under the programme. When compared with the estimated one million low-income families in the United States it is evident that so far the Tenant Purchase Program has not been a major influence in fostering farm ownership. It has, however, contributed much as an experiment in tackling the problem of low-income farm people who aspire to this goal.

WADHAM, S. M., and WOOD, G. L. *Land Utilization in Australia.* 2nd edition. Melbourne University Press, 1950. xx+376 pp. 30s.

This is the second edition of a book first published in 1939. Without attempting to draw definite conclusions as to how large a population Australia could support at any given standard of living, it discusses in a general way the technical and economic factors which limit possibilities of land settlement.

Co-operation.

Cooperative Digest. Yearbook and Directory of Farmer Cooperatives. Ithaca, New York, Roy H. Park, Inc., 1951. 647+125 pp.

A complete guide and reference book to farmer co-operatives in the United States, including an alphabetical index of co-operatives under various subheads, and a purchasing guide. Under each state heading are county statistics, co-operative facts and figures and a list of the existing farmer co-operatives. Full details of each association are given, including the title and object of the organisation, whether it is local or otherwise, registered trade names of products marketed and

purchased, the number and location of retail branches and subsidiary organisations, the chief officers and personnel, the number of members and employees, the net capital and operating reserves, etc.

MICHIGAN STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND APPLIED SCIENCE, Department of Agricultural Economics. *Personnel Administration in Regional Farmer Cooperative Association.* By W. Victor BIELINSKI. A Thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science. Washington, American Institute of Cooperation, 1951. vii+59 pp.

A study of personnel administration, including references to recruiting and selection techniques, employment policies and practices, benefits and training programmes.

MINISTÉRIO DA AGRICULTURA, SERVIÇO DE ECONOMIA RURAL. *Instruções para organização de sociedades cooperativas e contabilidade.* 2nd edition. Rio de Janeiro, 1951. 130 pp.

A brief description of the co-operative system in Brazil and a useful manual for those interested in organising co-operative societies.

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